1 2	DAVID A. ROSENFELD, Bar No. 058163 WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD A Professional Corporation	
3	1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200 Alameda, California 94501	
4	Telephone (510) 337-1001 Fax (510) 337-1023	
5	E-Mail: drosenfeld@unioncounsel.net	
6	Attorneys for Charging Party The Committee to Preserve the Religious Right to Organize	
7	6	
8	UNITED STATES (OF AMERICA
9	NATIONAL LABOR RE	LATIONS BOARD
10	REGION	I 20
11	THE COMMITTEE TO PRESERVE THE	No. 20-CA-139745
12	RELIGIOUS RIGHT TO ORGANIZE,	BRIEF IN SUPPORT OF CHARGING PARTY'S CROSS-
13	Charging Party.	EXCEPTIONS TO THE DECISION OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE LAW JUDGE
14	And	AND ANSWER BRIEF TO THE EXCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENT
15	HOBBY LOBBY STORES, INC.,	
16	Respondent,	
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A Professional Corporation
1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501
(\$10) 337-1001

TABLE OF CONTENTS

2	I.	INTRO	ODUCTION	1
3	II.	STAT	EMENT OF THE CASE	1
4 5	III.		FUAP IS GOVERNED BY THE BOARD'S DECISION IN PHY OIL	2
6 7	IV.	UNLA CONT	FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT CONTAINS OTHER WFUL PROVISIONS, OR THE EMPLOYER HANDBOOK 'AINS UNLAWFUL PROVISIONS THAT AFFECT THE	3
8 9 10		A.	THE FUAP IS A COMPANY POLICY, AND THOSE POLICIES GOVERN THE FUAP; THOSE POLICIES, WHICH ARE UNLAWFUL, RENDER THE FUAP UNLAWFUL	
11 12 13		В.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT IS CONFIDENTIAL, AND WORKERS CANNOT DISCLOSE THE PROCEEDINGS	3
14		C.	THE SOLICITATION POLICY RENDERS THE FUAP UNLAWFUL	4
15		D.	THE LOITERING POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FUAP	3
16 17		E.	THE EMAIL USAGE POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FUAP	3
18 19		F.	THE COMPUTER USAGE POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FAUP	3
20		G.	THE RETURN OF COMPANY PROPERTY POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FUAP	9
21 22		Н.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT IS A COMPANY POLICY AND IS ENFORCEABLE BY WAY OF DISCIPLINE.	9
23 24		I.	THE FUAP CONTAINS A PENALTY PROVISION FOR EXCERCISING SECTION 7 RIGHTS	9
25 26 27		J.	THE HANDBOOK CONTAINS A "FREE PEEK" PROVISION, WHICH GIVES AN UNFAIR ADVANTAGE TO THE EMPLOYER AND INTERFERES WITH THE SECTION 7 RIGHTS OF EMPLOYEES	C
28			<u>.</u>	

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ROSENFELD

A Professional Corporation

1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200

Alameda, California 94501

(510) 337-1001

BRIEF ISO CHARGING PARTY'S CROSS-EXCEPTIONS TO THE ALJ AND ANSWER BRIEF TO THE EXCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENT CASE NO. 20-CA-139745

1 2 3		K.	THE FUAP IS ONLY IN ENGLISH AND THUS DEPRIVES THE EMPLOYEES OF THEIR SECTION 7 RIGHTS TO READ, UNDERSTAND AND DISCUSS COLLECTIVELY THE FUAP AND THE APPLICABLE PROVISIONS IN THE HANDBOOK	10
4				
5		L.	SUMMARY	11
6	V.		FAA DOES NOT APPLY SINCE THERE IS NO CONTRACT MPLOYMENT	11
7	VI.	THE	FAA DOES NOT APPLY TO THE TRUCKDRIVERS	13
8	VII.	THE	BOARD MUST USE THIS CASE TO ADDRESS THE	
9			STITUTIONAL ISSUE OF WHETHER THE FAA CAN BE	
			LIED TO ACTIVITY WHICH DOES NOT AFFECT	
10		COM	IMERCE	14
11		A.	INTRODUCTION	14
12		B.	THIS CASE IS BEYOND THE STATUTORY REACH OF	
13			THE FAA SINCE THERE IS NO CONTRACT INVOLVING	
13			INTERSTATE COMMERCE	14
14		C.	THIS CASE IS BEYOND THE CONSTITUTIONAL REACH	
15			OF THE FAA SINCE THERE IS NO SHOWING THAT THE	
			DISPUTES COVERED BY THE FUAP AFFECT	
16			INTERSTATE COMMERCE OR THAT THE ACTIVITY OF	
17			RESOLVING THOSE DISPUTES AFFECTS INTERSTATE	10
			COMMERCE	19
18		D.	THERE IS NO "CONTROVERSY" SUBJECT TO THE FAA	23
19		E.	HOBBY LOBBY'S ANALYSIS SHOULD BE REJECTED	23
20		L.	HODD'I LODD'I S ANAL ISIS SHOOLD DE REJECTED	23
		F.	SUMMARY	24
21	VIII.	THE	APPLICATION OF THE FEDERAL ARBITRATION ACT	
22			NOT OVERRIDE THE IMPORTANT PURPOSES OF OTHER	
23			ERAL STATUTES THAT ALLOW EMPLOYEES TO SEEK EF FROM THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT FOR THE	
24			EFIT OF THEMSELVES AND OTHER WORKERS	24
	IX.	тиг	FUAP WOULD PROHIBIT COLLECTIVE ACTIONS THAT	
25	1A.		NOT PREEMPTED BY FAA UNDER STATE LAW	28
26		, 111		20
27				
28			::	

1	X.	THE FUAP UNLAWFULLY PROHIBITS GROUP CLAIMS THAT	
2		ARE NOT CLASS ACTIONS, REPRESENTATIVE ACTIONS, COLLECTIVE ACTIONS OR OTHER PROCEDURAL DEVICES	
3		AVAILABLE IN COURT OR OTHER FORA	30
4	XI.	THE FUAP IS INVALID AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7 RIGHTS TO RESOLVE DISPUTES BY CONCERTED ACTIVITY	
5		OF BOYCOTTS, BANNERS, STRIKES, WALKOUTS AND OTHER	•
6		ACTIVITIES	30
7	XII.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT WOULD PROHIBIT SALTING AND APPLIES AFTER EMPLOYMENT ENDS	32
8	3/111		
9	XIII.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7 RIGHTS BECAUSE IT FORECLOSES GROUP CLAIMS	
10		BROUGHT BY A UNION AS A REPRESENTATIVE OF AN EMPLOYEE OR EMPLOYEES	32
11	XIV.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT IMPOSES ADDITIONAL	
12	AIV.	COSTS ON EMPLOYEES TO BRING EMPLOYMENT RELATED	
		DISPUTES	33
13	XV.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT WOULD PROHIBIT AN EMPLOYEE OF ANOTHER EMPLOYER FROM ASSISTING A	
14		HOBBY LOBBY EMPLOYEE OR JOINING WITH A HOBBY	
15		LOBBY EMPLOYEE TO BRING A CLAIM	33
16	XVI.	BECAUSE THE EMPLOYER ALLOWS GROUP CLAIMS TO BE BROUGHT, IT HAS NO VALID BUSINESS JUSTIFICATION TO	
17		PRECLUDE THEM IN ARBITRATION	34
18	XVII.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7	
19		RIGHTS BECAUSE IT APPLIES TO PARTIES WHO ARE NOT THE EMPLOYER BUT MAY BE AGENTS OF THE EMPLOYER	
20		OR EMPLOYERS OF OTHER EMPLOYEES UNDER THE ACT	35
21	XVIII.	. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7	
22		RIGHTS BECAUSE IT RESTRICTS THE RIGHT OF WORKERS TO ACT TOGETHER TO DEFEND CLAIMS BY THE EMPLOYER	
23		AGAINST THEM	36
24	XIX.	THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL UNDER THE NORRIS-LAGUARDIA	
25		ACT	36
26	XX.	THE FUAP IS INVALID BECAUSE IT IS UNCLEAR AS TO WHAT IT COVERS, AND THEREFORE IT IS OVERBROAD; THE	
27		DECISION IN LUTHERAN HERITAGE VILLAGE-LIVONIA	
28		SHOULD BE OVERRULED; THE BOARD HAS NOW	
		;;;	

1			ECTIVELY OVERRULED <i>LUTHERAN HERITAGE VILLAGE-</i> NIA AND SHOULD EXPRESSLY DO SO	27
2		LIVO		
3		A.	INTRODUCTION	37
4		B.	THE BOARD SHOULD DISCARD LUTHERAN HERITAGE	
5			VILLAGE-LIVONIA TO THE TRASH HEAP OF DISCREDITED DECISIONS	38
		C.	THE BOARD HAS EFFECTIVELY OVERRULED	
6		C.	LUTHERAN HERITAGE VILLAGE-LIVONIA BY APPLYING	
7			THE RULE OF CONSTRUING AMBIGUITIES AGAINST THE EMPLOYER	42
8				
9		D.	CONCLUSION	43
10	XXI.		ALJ IMPROPERLY APPROVED THE JOINT MOTION OF	
11			GENERAL COUNSEL AND THE RESPONDENT TO SUBMIT MATTER ON A STIPULATED RECORD	43
12	XXII		RELIGIOUS FREEDOM RESTORATION ACT EXTENDS TO	
13	747411.	THE (CORE RELIGIOUS ACTIVITY OF HELPING OTHER	
			KERS, AND THE FAA, NLRA AND NORRIS-LAGUARDIA HAVE TO BE APPLIED TO PROTECT THIS RELIGIOUS	
14			T	45
15	XXIII.	THE	REMEDY	54
16	XXIV	CONO	CLUSION	56
17		. 001		
18				
19				
20				
21				
22				
23				
24				
25				
26				
27				
28				

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

2	Federal Cases
3	Allied-Bruce Terminix Cos., Inc. v. Dobson, 513 U.S. 265 (1995)
5	<i>A&T v. Concepcion</i> , 563 U.S. 321 (2011)53
6 7	Bernhardt v. Polygraphic Co. of America, 350 U.S. 198 (1956)
8	Buckeye Check Cashing, Inc. v. Cardegna, 546 U.S. 440 (2006)12
9	Burwell v. Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc., 134 S.Ct. 2751 (2014)passim
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12	Citizens Bank v. Alafabco, Inc., 539 U.S. 52 (2003)
13 14	City of Boerne v. P. F. Flores, 521 U.S. 507 (1997)46, 51
15	City of New York v. Beretta, 524 F.3d 384 (2d Cir. 2008)
16 17	Eastex v. NLRB, 437 U.S. 556 (1978)33
18	EEOC v. Univ. of Detroit, 904 F.2d 331 (6th Cir. 1990)54
19 20	Employment Division v. Smith, 494 U.S. 872 (1990)45
21	First Options v. Kaplan, 514 U.S. 938 (1995)36
22 23	Garrison v. Palmas Del Mar Homeowners Ass'n, Inc., 538 F. Supp. 2d 468 (D.P.R. 2008)15
24	Gonzales v. Raich, 545 U.S. 1 (2005)22
25 26	Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc. v. Sebelius, 723 F.3d 1114 (10th Cir.2013)47, 48, 49, 50
27 28	Hoffman Plastic Compounds v. NLRB, 535 U.S. 137 (2002)25, 43
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WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD

A Professional Corporation
1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501
(510) 337-1001

BRIEF ISO CHARGING PARTY'S CROSS-EXCEPTIONS TO THE ALJ AND ANSWER BRIEF TO THE EXCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENT CASE NO. 20-CA-139745

1	Int'l Molders' & Allied Workers' Local Union No. 164 v. Nelson, 102 F.R.D. 457 (N.D. Cal. 1983)	33
2	Int'l Union, United Auto., Aerospace & Agr. Implement Workers of Am. v. Brock,	
3	477 U.S. 274 (1986)	33
4	Little Sisters of the Poor Home for the Aged, Denver, Colo. v. Burwell, No. 13-1540, 2015 WL 4232096 (10th Cir. July 14, 2015)	48
5	Maryland v. Wirtz,	
6	392 U.S. 183 (1968)	21
7	Medina Betancourt et al. v. Cruz Azul de, P.R., 155 D.P.R. 735	15
8		13
9	Nat'l Fed'n of Indep. Bus. v. Sebelius, 132 S.Ct. 2566 (2012)	19, 20
10	NLRB v. City Disposal Sys. Inc., 465 U.S. 822 (1984)	21
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14	388 U.S. 26 (1967)	33
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17		19
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19		20
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22	Shearson Hayden Stone, Inc. v. Liang,	
23	493 F. Supp. 104(N.D. III. 1980),	15
24	Slaughter v. Stewart Enterprises, Inc., No. C, 07-01157MHP, 2007 WL 2255221 (N.D. Cal. Aug. 3, 2007)	.15, 17, 18
25	Soc. Servs. Union, Local 535 v. Santa Clara Cty.,	
26	609 F.2d 944 (9th Cir. 1979)	33
27	Stampolis v. Provident Auto Leasing Co., 586 F.Supp.2d 88 (E.D.N.Y. 2008)	21
28		
	V1	

1	United Food & Commercial Workers Union Local 751 v. Brown Group., Inc., 517 U.S. 544 (1996)	33
2	United States v. Circle C Constr.,	
3	697 F.3d 345 (6th Cir. 2012)	26
4	United States v. Lopez, 514 U.S. 549 (1995)	21, 22
5	United States v. Morrison,	
6	529 U.S. 598 (2000)	19, 20
7	Veliz v. Cintas Corp., No. C 03-1180 SBA, 2004 WL 2452851(N.D. Cal. Apr. 5, 2004)	13
8	State Cases	
9	Bridas v. Int'l Standard Elec. Corp., 490 N.Y.S.2d 711 (N.Y. Sup. Ct. 1985)	18
11	Bruner v. Timberlane Manor Ltd. P'ship, 155 P.3d 16 (Okla. 2006)	17
12	Carmona v. Lincoln Millennium Car Wash, Inc.,	1/
13	226 Cal.App.4th 74 (2014)	4, 10, 11, 16
14	City of Cut Bank v. Tom Patrick Constr., Inc., 963 P.2d 1283 (Mont. 1998)	17
15	Gemini Ambulance Servs Inc	
16	103 S.W.3d 507 (Tex. App. 2003)	16
17	Iskanian v. C.L.S. Transp., 59 Cal.4th 348 (2014)	28, 29
18 19	Rodriguez v. Testa, 296 Conn. 1, 993 A.2d 955 (2010)	21
20	Sonic-Calabasas A, Inc. v. Moreno, 57 Cal.4th 1109 (2013),	29 16
21	NLRB Cases	20, 40
22	Ark Las Vegas Rest. Corp.,	
23	343 NLRB 1281 (2004)	38
2425	Browning-Ferris Indus., 362 NLRB No. 186 (2015)	35
26	Caesars Entertainment, 362 NLRB No. 190 (2015)	37
27	Clara Barton Terrace Convalescent Ctr., 225 NLRB 1028 (1976)	21
28	vii	34
	BRIEF ISO CHARGING PARTY'S CROSS-EXCEPTIONS TO THE ALL AND ANSWER BI	RIFE TO THE

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A Professional Corporation
1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501
(\$10) 337-1001

EXCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENT

CASE NO. 20-CA-139745

1	Conagra Foods, Inc., 361 NLRB No. 113 (2014)5
2 3	Costco Wholesale, 358 NLRB No. 1065
4	D. R. Horton,
5	357 NLRB No. 184 (2012)
6	Double D Construction Group, Inc., 339 NLRB 303 (2003)
7	Emergency One, Inc., 306 NLRB 800 (1992)5
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10	Flex Frac Logistics, 358 NLRB No. 127 (2012)
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2324	Mcpc, Inc., 360 NLRB No. 39 (2014)5
25	Murphy Oil USA, Inc., 361 NLRB No. 72 (2014)
2627	Norris/O'Bannon, 307 NLRB 1236 (1992)42
28	viii
	BRIEF ISO CHARGING PARTY'S CROSS-EXCEPTIONS TO THE ALJ AND ANSWER BRIEF TO THE

WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD

A Professional Corporation
1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501
(510) 337-1001

EXCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENT CASE NO. 20-CA-139745

1	Powellton Coal Co., 354 NLRB 419 (2009)	5
2	Professional Janitorial Serv.,	
3	363 NLRB No. 35 (2015)	37, 42
4	Purple Communications, 361 NLRB No. 126 (2014)	0
5		δ
6	Rockline Indus., 341 NLRB 287 (2004)	5
7	Scientific-Atlanta, Inc., 278 NLRB 622 (1966)	5
8	· · · · ·	
9	Starbucks Corp., 354 NLRB 876 (2009)	5
10	Three D, LLC d/b/a Triple Play Sports Bar & Grille,	40
11	361 NLRB No. 31 (2014)	40
12	W. W. Grainger, Inc., 229 NLRB 161 (1977)	5
13	<u>Federal Statutes</u>	
14	9 U.S.C. Section 1.,	passim
15	29 U.S.C. § 11	52
16	29 U.S.C. § 101	36
17	29 U.S.C. § 102	36
18	29 U.S.C. § 103	37
19	29 U.S.C. § 151	21, 52
20	29 U.S.C. § 152(2)	45
21	29 U.S.C. § 159	54
22	29 U.S.C. section 160(e)	1
23	29 U.S.C. § 175	33
24	29 U.S.C. § 201.,	26
25	29 U.S.C. § 217	26
26	29 U.S.C. § 1001	26
27	29 U.S.C. § 1132(a)(1) and (3)	26
28	iv	

	Π	
1	29 U.S.C. § 1140	35
2	42 U.S.C. § 2000bb	passim
3	42 U.S.C. § 2000cc	46
4	State Statutes	
5	Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 17204	29
6	Cal. Lab. Code § 210(b)	28
7	Cal. Lab. Code § 217	28
8	Cal. Lab. Code § 218	28
9	Cal. Lab. Code § 225.5(b)	28
10	Cal. Lab. Code § 245	29
11	Cal. Lab. Code § 1101 and 1102	29
12	Labor Code § 2699 and 2699.3	28
13 14	Other Authorities Arbitration's Counter-Narrative: The Religious Arbitration Paradigm,	
15	124 Yale L.J. 2994 (2015)	53
16	Professor Matthew Finkin, "The Meaning and Contemporary Vitality of the Norris-LaGuardia Act," 93 Neb L. Rev 1 (2014)	37
17	Norths EuGuardia 766, 93 New E. Rev 1 (2014)	
18		
19		
20		
21		
22		
23		
24		
25		
26		
27		
28	v	

WEINBERG, ROGER &

ROSENFELD
A Professional Corporation
1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501
(510) 337-1001

I. INTRODUCTION

Hobby Lobby maintains an unlawful forced unilateral arbitration procedure ("FUAP"), which requires applicants and employees to waive Section 7 rights. First, the FUAP prevents employees from bringing charges to the National Labor Relations Board. Second, the FUAP prohibits collective, class representatives or other concerted action, including group actions, before any state, local or federal agency or state, local or federal court and in its FUAP. In these regards, the FUAP violates Section 8(a)(1) of the National Labor Relations Act. The ALJ has found these violations of the Act.

The ALJ ignored some fundamental issues. We discuss them below. We also address issues raised by Respondent. Hobby Lobby will challenge any Board ruling invalidating its FUAP. We urge the Board to adopt these alternative theories to ensure enforcement. We also do so to preserve the Charging Party's rights to raise these issues on Review. 29 U.S.C. section 160(e).

Finally, we note that many of these issues have not been directly addressed by the Board. It would be easy for the Board to affirm, relying on the ALJ's rationale. We hope that the Board will address these important issues.

II. STATEMENT OF THE CASE

Hobby Lobby maintains retail stores, distribution centers and other work places in virtually the entire Country. It is largely a retail operation with distribution centers and other employees.

As part of its employment policies, it maintains a FUAP. That FUAP is reflected in JX 2I and JX 2J and applies to all employees. Additionally, that FUAP applies to applicants. See JX 2K and JX 2L. An applicant cannot even apply unless the applicant agrees to waive their rights under the FUAP.

The same FUAP covers all employment disputes. Although exceptions are created for Workers' Compensation and certain other state law claims, as well as an exemption for ERISA claims, there is no exemption for charges brought under the National Labor Relations Act.

Hobby Lobby not only maintains the FUAP, but it maintains many other employee policies. See EX 2I and EX 2J. As we will point out, those employment policies, some of which are illegal, govern the FUAP and make it illegal on that ground.

The Employer maintains two sets of employment policies. First, there is the employment policy that governs in California. See EX 2I. Second, there is the employment policy that governs throughout the rest of the Company. See EX 2J. Nonetheless, for purposes of the FUAP and for the issues presented in this case, the differences appear to be of no significance.

Hobby Lobby also has truck drivers who drive in Interstate Commerce. This is relevant, as we shall show, with respect to the application of federal law. See also http://www.drivehobbylobby.com/.

Finally, as is more fully discussed below, Hobby Lobby claims to be an entity that adheres to religious principles. It has already litigated and vindicated those religious principles in another context. See *Burwell v. Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc.*, 134 S.Ct. 2751 (2014). In that case, the Supreme Court expressly noted that religious principles govern the Hobby Lobby workplace. Below, we address those issues when we consider the application of the Religious Freedom Restoration Act (RFRA). See 42 U.S.C. § 2000bb–2000bb-4. As we shall show, concerted activity to help others in the workplace is the core activity protected by the National Labor Relations Act. Such activity is also a central principle of virtually every religious teaching, including those that govern Hobby Lobby. The employer's prohibition against employees helping other employees to resolve workplace disputes violates this principle, and, to the extent the application of the Federal Arbitration Act (FAA), 9 U.S.C. Section 1, *et seq.*, sanctions such a policy, it substantially interferes with that religious activity.

III. THE FUAP IS GOVERNED BY THE BOARD'S DECISION IN MURPHY OIL

The Board's decision in *Murphy Oil USA, Inc.*, 361 NLRB No. 72 (2014), *enforcement denied*, 2015 WL 6457613 (5th Cir. 2015), and subsequent cases governs. For reasons discussed below, however, there are additional and related reasons why the FUAP is unlawful. We address those issues below.

IV. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT CONTAINS OTHER UNLAWFUL PROVISIONS, OR THE EMPLOYER HANDBOOK CONTAINS UNLAWFUL PROVISIONS THAT AFFECT THE FUAP

A. THE FUAP IS A COMPANY POLICY, AND THOSE POLICIES GOVERN THE FUAP; THOSE POLICIES, WHICH ARE UNLAWFUL, RENDER THE FUAP UNLAWFUL

Here, we point out various policies maintained by Hobby Lobby that are applicable to the FUAP. The ALJ did not address these issues, concluding that the Complaint did not allege these policies to be unlawful. The Complaint alleged the FUAP to be unlawful. These challenged policies were made part of the record and are part of the FUAP. The FUAP is in the same handbook that contains these unlawful rules.¹ They render the FUAP unlawful.

B. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT IS CONFIDENTIAL, AND WORKERS CANNOT DISCLOSE THE PROCEEDINGS

The FUAP is unlawful because the Employee Handbook contains an unlawful confidentiality provision. That unlawful confidentiality provision is entitled "confidentiality policy," and it appears at JX 2I p. 31 and JX 2J p. 30. Because that policy would apply to proceedings brought under the FUAP, the FUAP itself is unlawful. The confidentiality provision, for example, encompasses "confidential data about employees, including employee pay rates and performance evaluations." It also extends to information "that if disclosed, could adversely affect the Company's business." Claims or adverse decisions under the FUAP could adversely affect the Company's business.

It would prohibit employees from disclosing collective action under the FUAP or would prohibit one employee who invoked the FUAP from disclosing what occurred in the FUAP. It would prevent one employee from disclosing a favorable decision, which another employee could use.²

Hobby Lobby relies on handbook statements to explain and modify the FUAP. For example, the Handbooks, Jt Ex. 2I at page 13 and 2J at page 13-14, refer to the FUAP and expressly modify or clarify the FUAP. This applies to the rules discussed above. The handbooks are also inconsistent with the FUAP. For example, the Handbooks refer to settling "legal disputes." The FUAP has no such limitation and includes "any demand, claim, controversy." This is an ambiguity that Hobby Lobby has not explained and should be construed against it.

² This confidentiality policy effectively forecloses the use of *res judicata* or collateral estoppel principles by employees against Hobby Lobby. This is another substantive defect of the FUAP that disallows substantive claims.

For the reasons addressed above, the confidentiality provision in the employee handbooks³ and the American Arbitration Association rules renders the FUAP unlawful.

C. THE SOLICITATION POLICY RENDERS THE FUAP UNLAWFUL

The solicitation policy at JX 2I p. 32 and JX 2J p. 31 is unlawful. Employees may not "solicit for any other cause during work time." This would prohibit employees from soliciting other employees to help them in any claim which they might bring under the FUAP. The policy would furthermore prohibit employees from having documents in their possession to support their claims. Finally, the policy prohibits employees from distributing "literature or printed material of any kind in work areas at any time." This would prevent them, for example, from soliciting documents in support of claims or even copies of the Employee Handbook.

The word "solicitation" is overbroad. Under current Board law, a general nondiscriminatory rule limiting employees' communications that are solicitations to non-work time is valid on its face and may be applied to email communications as to other communications. This follows from the fact that "[w]orking time is for work," so that "a rule prohibiting union solicitation during working hours . . . must be presumed to be valid in the absence of evidence that it was adopted for a discriminatory purpose." Republic Aviation v. NLRB, 324 U.S.793, 803 n.10 (1945). By the same token, because

> time outside working hours . . . is an employee's time to use as he wishes without unreasonable restraint, . . . a rule prohibiting union solicitation by an employee outside of working hours, although on company property[,]... must be presumed to be an unreasonable impediment to self-organization . . . in the absence of evidence that special circumstances make the rule necessary in order to maintain production or discipline.

Republic Aviation, 324 U.S. at 803–04 n.10. Thus, to justify restrictions on employee email communications concerning union or other concerted, protected matters during non-work time, the employer must show "special circumstances" that "make the rule necessary."

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unconscionable).

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(confidentiality clause that is one sided renders arbitration agreement substantively

See, e.g., Carmona v. Lincoln Millennium Car Wash, Inc., 226 Cal. App. 4th 74, 79, 89 (2014)

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On the other hand, it is well settled that rules prohibiting employees' discussion of their wages, hours, or other terms and conditions of employment violate Section 8(a)(1) of the Act. *Mcpc, Inc.*, 360 NLRB No. 39 (2014); *Flex Frac Logistics*, 358 NLRB No. 127 at * 1-2 (2012), *enforced*, 746 F.3d 205 (5th Cir. 2014); *Costco Wholesale*, 358 NLRB No. 106 at p. 2-3; *Flamingo Hilton Laughlin*, 330 NLRB 287, 292 (1999); *Koronis Parts*, 324 NLRB 675, 686, 694 (1997). See also *Scientific-Atlanta, Inc.*, 278 NLRB 622, 624-625 (1966) (wages are a "vital term and condition of employment," "probably the most critical element in employment" and "the grist on which concerted activity feeds").

It is, however, no longer possible to distinguish between solicitation and communication. The Board has historically attempted to draw a distinction between solicitation and mere talking. Conagra Foods, Inc., 361 NLRB No. 113 (2014). See also Fremont Med. Ctr., 357 NLRB No. 158 n. 9 (2011). In W. W. Grainger, Inc., 229 NLRB 161, 166 (1977), enforced, 582 F.2d 1118 (7th Cir. 1978), the Board noted, "It should be clear that 'solicitation' for a union is not the same thing as talking about a union or a union meeting or whether a union is good or bad." See Powellton Coal Co., 354 NLRB 419 (2009), incorporated by reference in 355 NLRB 407 (2010) (employer unlawfully prohibited employees from engaging in conversations about the union). "An employer may not restrict union related conversations while permitting conversations relating to other topics." Rockline Indus., 341 NLRB 287, 293 (2004); Jensen Enter., 339 NLRB 877, 878 (2003). Thus, an employer cannot turn a valid no-solicitation rule into a no-talking rule. Starbucks Corp., 354 NLRB 876, 891-93 (2009); Emergency One, Inc., 306 NLRB 800 (1992) (respondent unlawfully restricted conversations about the union during work time while permitting other conversations including those about non-work matters); ITT Indus., 331 NLRB 4 (2000) (respondent's instruction not to engage in any discussion of the union with any employee was unlawful where employees were, notwithstanding rule in employee handbook prohibiting all solicitations during working time, allowed to engage in discussions and solicitation on the production floor). In Wal-Mart Stores, 340 NLRB 637, 639 (2003), enf'd in relevant part, 400 F.3d 1093 (8th Cir. 2005), the Board found that the wearing of union insignia was not solicitation

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1	and would not justify the application of a no solicitation rule. The Eighth Circuit found that the
2	employee solicited when he requested a signature on an authorization card, but did not engage in
3	solicitation when he: (1) entered a Walmart store while off-duty wearing a t-shirt that read "Unior
4	Teamsters" on the front and "Sign a card Ask me how!" on the back and (2) had conversations,
5	while on-duty, with Walmart Associates about attending a union meeting. Wal-Mart Stores, Inc.
6	v. NLRB, 400 F.3d 1093, 1097-1098 (8th Cir. 2005). The Board's recent Decision in Conagra
7	Foods, Inc., supra, illustrates, however, that this distinction is not viable.
8	For proof of our argument, we turn to the dictionary. The Supreme Court and lower
9	courts routinely turn to the dictionary as an authoritative source. Merriam-Webster's definition of
10	"solicit" is in part as follows:
11	Full Definition of SOLICIT
12	transitive verb
13	1 a: to make petition to: entreat
14 15	b: to approach with a request or plea < solicited Congress for funding>
16	2 : to urge (as one's cause) strongly
17	See http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/soliciting.
18	The Oxford English Dictionary has the following definition of solicitation:
19	1 Ask for or try to obtain (something) from someone:
20	'he called a meeting to solicit their views'
21	1.1 Ask (someone) for something:
22	'historians and critics are solicited for opinions by the auction houses'
23	See
24	http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/solicit?q=solicitation#solicit_
25	_10.
26	Neither of these definitions is limited to asking someone to pay money or sign something
27	contemporaneously. Asking for help or support is clearly a form of solicitation and clearly

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Professional Corporation Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200 Alameda, California 94501 protected. Asking other workers to walk out or to support some other action would be solicitation.

Focusing on the definition "to urge (as one's cause) strongly," the term does not constitute solicitation within the Board's traditional definition of asking for money or asking someone to sign an authorization card contemporaneously. Soliciting can, according to this definition (and many dictionary definitions), constitute just communication. If many dictionaries define solicitation in this broader fashion, any reasonable employee could read the dictionary and come to the same conclusion.

Conagra Foods, Inc., supra, again confirms that solicitation "usually means asking someone to join the union by signing his name to an authorization card' at that time." Id. at p. 2. These cases, however, make it clear that the word "solicitation" is capable of many meanings, some of which are contradictory. Indeed, the dispute in Conagra Foods demonstrates that there remains no clear understanding of what constitutes "solicitation." Management contends it has a broader meaning. If the Board and courts are in disagreement, there is no reason to believe that a "reasonable employee" would read it more narrowly or more broadly. Particularly if management claims it has a broader meaning, no "reasonable" or any employee can figure out what it means.

The problem here is that the no-solicitation rule doesn't make this clear. If an employer's policy explained that solicitation was the immediate request for money or joining, the uncertainty would be eliminated. Member Miscimarra's dissent in *Conagra*, *supra*, proves our point. He argues the Board's decision creates uncertainty as to what is solicitation. If he is correct, then any no-solicitation policy is void.

Since dictionaries define solicitation to include much broader conduct than falls within the traditional labor law definition, the use of the word "solicitation" by itself, without further limitation, is overbroad. The Board must directly face this issue.

Applying *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia*, employees will reasonably conclude, as the Merriam-Webster and many dictionaries have, that solicitation encompasses activity that is

protected and permissible during work time. Hobby Lobby's prohibition against "solicitation" during work time encompasses communications that are not within the Board's historical definition of "solicitation." If the Board and the Courts and employers cannot adequately identify what is the difference between solicitation and communication, the word is overbroad. This further illustrates why *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* should be overruled. Alternatively, the Board should find that the use of the word "solicitation" in Hobby Lobby's prohibitory rule, without more explanation, is overbroad and chills employee Section 7 rights. It thus interferes with the FUAP because it limits the right of employees to seek support or "solicit" support and assistance.

D. THE LOITERING POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FUAP

The loitering policy at JX I p. 32 and JX J p. 31 would prohibit employees from remaining in parking lots in order to solicit assistance to bring claims. This affects the ability of employees to bring claims collectively or jointly under the FUAP.

E. THE EMAIL USAGE POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FUAP

The email usage policy at JX I p. 36 and JX J p. 37 prohibits employees from sending "unsolicited email messages." This would prohibit employees from sending emails to other employees about claims. They could not seek information or witnesses to support their claims. This interferes with Section 7 rights of employees to resolve claims under the FUAP.

F. THE COMPUTER USAGE POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FAUP

The computer usage policy at JX I p. 34–35 and JX J p. 35–36 interferes with the FUAP because "email may not be used to solicit donations or support on behalf of individuals or organizations." This plainly violates *Purple Communications*, 361 NLRB No. 126 (2014). More importantly, it interferes with the FUAP. Employees would be prohibited from soliciting support for individual claims or any group claims brought under the FUAP. Cf. *Fresh & Easy Neighborhood Market*, 361 NLRB No. 12 (2014) (solidarity principle allows employees to ask another employee for support, i.e., solicit support).

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G. THE RETURN OF COMPANY PROPERTY POLICY INTERFERES WITH THE FUAP

The Company maintains a policy entitled "Return of Company Property Policy." See JX I p. 10–11, JX J p. 11.

Because this policy would require employees to return not only the handbook, but copies of any documents, including evidence that might support their claims, this interferes with the FUAP.

H. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT IS A COMPANY POLICY AND IS ENFORCEABLE BY WAY OF DISCIPLINE

The stipulated facts indicate that the Employer has enforced the FUAP by way of motions to compel arbitration. Examples of those motions are attached as JX 2Y and JX 2Z. Additionally, the FUAP is contained within the Employee Handbook. It is thus a policy maintained by the Respondent. The Respondent makes it plain that any conduct "inconsistent with any of the Company's policies . . . may be subject to discipline." This is contained in the Employee Conduct Policy. See JX 2I p. 29–30, JX 2J p. 28–29.

Because Hobby Lobby makes it clear that it will discipline employees for acts that violate the Company's policies, employees are subject to discipline if they file charges with the Labor Board or file claims of any kind, including class or collective or concerted claims.

This principle underlies every case involving the maintenance of unlawful rules. The Board assumes that employers will enforce company policies and rules by way of discipline. Thus, the maintenance of those rules is unlawful because of the threat of discipline. No employer maintains rules and announces to employees it will not enforce rules by way of discipline. Here, Hobby Lobby makes it explicit that employees may be disciplined for violation of these rules. There are many Board cases where employees have been disciplined for violation of such rules.

I. THE FUAP CONTAINS A PENALTY PROVISION FOR EXCERCISING SECTION 7 RIGHTS

The FUAP provides that if any party

institutes any action in a court of law or equity against the other party with respect to any Dispute required to be arbitrated under this Agreement, the responding party shall be entitled to recover

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(510) 337-1001

from the initiating party all costs, expenses and attorney fees incurred to enforce this Agreement and compel arbitration, and all other damages resulting from or incurred as a result of such court action.

This penalizes workers who may institute any action in court. This penalizes employees additionally because of the threat of a damage award. There is no provision in the FAA for such an award of either fees or damages. This certainly chills if not terrorizes employees who may want to exercise their Section 7 rights to bring a court action.⁵

J. THE HANDBOOK CONTAINS A "FREE PEEK" PROVISION, WHICH GIVES AN UNFAIR ADVANTAGE TO THE EMPLOYER AND INTERFERES WITH THE SECTION 7 RIGHTS OF EMPLOYEES

The handbook provides for an "Open Door Policy." JX 2I p. 10, JX 2J p. 12. It immediately precedes the FUAP. It states, "If any employee has any problem relating to his/her job, the employee should promptly and frankly discuss it with his/her supervisor." This gives Hobby Lobby an unfair "free peek" at the employee claim or dispute. Such free looks are considered substantively unconscionable. The FUAP also contains a "free peek" provision that is mandatory: "Prior to submitting a dispute to arbitration, the aggrieved party shall first attempt to resolve the Dispute by notifying the other party in writing of the Dispute." These provisions interfere with Section 7 rights, particularly for employees who want to refrain from presenting their dispute to management until arbitration.

K. THE FUAP IS ONLY IN ENGLISH AND THUS DEPRIVES THE EMPLOYEES OF THEIR SECTION 7 RIGHTS TO READ, UNDERSTAND AND DISCUSS COLLECTIVELY THE FUAP AND THE APPLICABLE PROVISIONS IN THE HANDBOOK

Employees have the fundamental right to discuss their terms and conditions of employment. This necessarily includes understanding those terms. Hobby Lobby has presented no evidence that it provides the FUAP or the handbook in any language other than English. More

⁴ It is also substantively unconscionable because it does not allow an employee to recover fees if Hobby Lobby files a petition to compel arbitration and is unsuccessful. *Carmona v. Lincoln Millennium Car Wash, Inc., supra.*

⁵ This is extremely broad since it encompasses "any Dispute."

⁶ Carmona v. Lincoln Millennium Car Wash, Inc., supra at 89.

than just interfering with Section 7 rights, it prevents Section 7 rights by keeping the FUAP secret by having it and the Handbook in an incomprehensible format.⁷

L. SUMMARY

It is clear that there are a number of provisions in the employee handbook that undermine, interfere with and severely restrict the right of employees to bring claims collectively or even individually. The FUAP is effectively undermined and made unlawful by the Company's other policies.⁸

V. THE FAA DOES NOT APPLY SINCE THERE IS NO CONTRACT OF EMPLOYMENT

The FAA applies only where there is "a contract evidencing a transaction involving commerce to settle by arbitration a controversy thereafter arising out of such contract." 9 U.S.C. § 2. Under the FAA, there must be some other "contract involving commerce."

The Supreme Court's seminal decision applying the FAA is expressly conditioned upon the existence of an employment contract:

Respondent, at the outset, contends that we need not address the meaning of the § 1 exclusion provision to decide the case in his favor. In his view, an employment contract is not a "contract evidencing a transaction involving interstate commerce" at all, since the word "transaction" in § 2 extends only to commercial contracts. See Craft, 177 F.3d, at 1085 (concluding that § 2 covers only "commercial deal[s] or merchant's sale [s]"). This line of reasoning proves too much, for it would make the § 1 exclusion provision superfluous. If all contracts of employment are beyond the scope of the Act under the § 2 coverage provision, the separate exemption for "contracts of employment of seamen, railroad employees, or any other class of workers engaged in ... interstate commerce" would be pointless. See, e.g., Pennsylvania Dept. of Public Welfare v. Davenport, 495 U.S. 552, 562, 110 S.Ct. 2126, 109 L.Ed.2d 588 (1990) ("Our cases express a deep reluctance to interpret a statutory provision so as to render superfluous other provisions in the same enactment"). The proffered interpretation of 'evidencing a transaction involving commerce," furthermore, would be inconsistent with Gilmer v. Interstate/Johnson Lane Corp., 500 U.S. 20, 111 S.Ct. 1647, 114 L.Ed.2d 26 (1991), where we held that § 2 required the arbitration of an age discrimination claim based on an agreement in a securities registration application,

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⁷ This renders it procedurally unconscionable. *Carmona v. Lincoln Millennium Car Wash, Inc., supra*, at 85.

⁸ The FUAP would be substantively unconscionable under other state laws with these restrictions.

a dispute that did not arise from a "commercial deal or merchant's sale." Nor could respondent's construction of § 2 be reconciled with the expansive reading of those words adopted in *Allied–Bruce*, 513 U.S., at 277, 279–280, 115 S.Ct. 834. If, then, *114 there is an argument to be made that arbitration agreements in employment contracts are not covered by the Act, it must be premised on the language of the § 1 exclusion provision itself.

Circuit City Stores, Inc. v. Adams, 532 U.S. 105, 113-14(2001); See also Buckeye Check Cashing, Inc. v. Cardegna, 546 U.S. 440, 445 (2006) (an arbitration provision is severable from the remainder of the contract). See also Allied-Bruce Terminix Cos., Inc. v. Dobson, 513 U.S. 265, 277 (1995) (finding "a contract evidencing a transaction involving commerce" as a prerequisite to the application of the FAA).

There is no contract. The FUAP expressly states: "This Agreement is not, and should not be construed to create a contract of employment, express from implied, and shall not alter Employees at-will employment status." The same language is contained in the introduction to the Employee Handbook. See JX I p. 5 and JX J p. 5.

The ALJ avoided this issue, stating that it would be too complicated and no party had briefed the issue. See ALJD p. 10. But the burden is on Hobby Lobby to establish the existence of a contract. This is true under the NLRA and the FAA. Its handbook expressly disclaims such a contract, and if their argument is that state law (or federal law) establishes the existence of such a contract, the burden is on Hobby Lobby to establish such a contract. It has utterly failed to do so. The fact that it has stores and locations in many states doesn't excuse its task of establishing the legitimacy of the FUAP in each state.

Assuming that the FUAP standing alone is a contract, that contract of employment does not affect commerce. The FAA applies to "a contract evidencing a transaction involving commerce to settle by arbitration a controversy thereafter arising out of such contract or transaction." There is no transaction here affecting commerce by the FUAP, assuming it is the only contract. There is no evidence in the record of how such contract can affect commerce.

This issue is one of interpreting the statute. The FAA does not apply absent a contract.

VI. THE FAA DOES NOT APPLY TO THE TRUCKDRIVERS

The ALJ also found that the FAA does not apply to truck drivers. See ALJD p. 15-16. We agree with that conclusion. It is not necessary to reach the commerce clause issue as to those employees who are statutorily excluded from the FAA. Hobby Lobby's argument that the "bare [sic] fact that drivers transport Hobby Lobby's products across state lines" (Brief, p. 58) does not establish the FAA exception is lame at best. What do truck drivers do except drive trucks across state lines. Hobby Lobby furthermore ignores that the FUAP encompasses any group claim. Its arguments that the Board cannot overrule the rules of court are equally irrelevant to the extent that "group" including consolidated claims are foreclosed by the FUAP.

⁹ Hobby Lobby employs truck drivers who transport goods in interstate commerce. See http://www.drivehobbylobby.com/. See Stipulation ¶4(b).

The Federal Arbitration Act exempts from its application drivers who are involved in interstate commerce, meaning interstate transportation of goods. See 9 U.S.C. § 1; See also *Circuit City Stores v. Adams*, 532 U.S. 105 (2001) (discussing transportation exemption). One Court has extensively discussed this issue and stated:

Thus, reviewing the case law, this Court can see a general trend amongst the circuits. Plaintiffs who are personally responsible for transporting goods, no matter what industry they are in, are "transportation workers" under the FAA exemption. Plaintiffs who oversee the transportation of goods in the transportation industry itself are also "transportation workers" under the FAA exemption.

Veliz v. Cintas Corp., No. C 03-1180 SBA, 2004 WL 2452851, at *6 (N.D. Cal. Apr. 5, 2004) modified on reconsideration, No. 03-01180 (SBA), 2005 WL 1048699 (N.D. Cal. May 4, 2005).

Hobby Lobby is not involved in the transportation industry as a motor private carrier, and the truck drivers are within the exclusion.

Even to the extent the FAA may foreclose the National Labor Relations Act from protecting Section 7 rights for other employees, it cannot do so for the truck drivers. The ALJ must address that issue in this case.

A truck driver is involved in commerce even if she does not drive across state lines.

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VII. THE BOARD MUST USE THIS CASE TO ADDRESS THE CONSTITUTIONAL ISSUE OF WHETHER THE FAA CAN BE APPLIED TO ACTIVITY WHICH DOES NOT AFFECT COMMERCE

INTRODUCTION Α.

The Board has never addressed the question of whether the FAA may be applied to a FUAP without constitutional concerns under the Commerce Clause. 11 We address those issues below.

The ALJ concluded that the FAA cannot be applied unless the employment dispute that would be subject to the FUAP affects commerce. Although we agree on that point, Charging Party asserts that there are alternative applications of commerce clause jurisprudence that make it unconstitutional to apply the FAA to the FUAP.

First, assuming there were an individual contract, there is no showing that such a contract that includes the FUAP, affects commerce. Second, we agree that the employment dispute itself is an activity, and the employer must show that activity affects commerce. Third, the employer must show that the dispute resolution activity of individual arbitration or group arbitration affects commerce. Fourth, there is no "transaction" triggering the FAA. Here, the employer failed to establish any constitutional basis to apply the FAA.

There is no inconsistency in the regulation of activity encompassed within the National Labor Relations Act and finding no commerce activity regulated by the FAA. The Act regulates the employer; the activity regulated is activity of employees and employers and labor organizations. In contrast, the FAA regulates only a target activity: arbitration. It does not purport to apply to employees, unions or employers. Thus, there is no inconsistency.

В. THIS CASE IS BEYOND THE STATUTORY REACH OF THE FAA SINCE THERE IS NO CONTRACT INVOLVING INTERSTATE COMMERCE

By its own terms, the FAA applies only to arbitration provisions that appear in a "contract evidencing a transaction involving commerce" (9 U.S.C. § 2), where commerce is defined as

Counsel for the Charging Party has raised this issue in several other cases pending before the Board. The issue is more thoroughly briefed in this case. The ALJ has in part addressed this issue. The Board cannot duck it because it cannot reach the merits without deciding whether the FAA applies either as an interpretation of the statute or as a matter of commerce clause regulation.

"commerce among the several States or with foreign nations." 9 U.S.C. § 1. The Supreme Court has held that under this language, "the transaction (that the contract evidences) must turn out, *in fact*, to have involved interstate commerce." *Allied-Bruce Terminix Cos.*, *Inc. v. Dobson*, 513 U.S. 265, 277 (1995) (emphasis in original). ¹²

Thus, the FAA cannot be applied unless there is proof that the contract containing the arbitration provision involved a transaction that in fact affects interstate commerce. *Garrison v. Palmas Del Mar Homeowners Ass'n, Inc.*, 538 F. Supp. 2d 468, 473 (D.P.R. 2008) ("[T]he FAA . . . only applies when the parties allege and prove that the transaction at issue involved interstate commerce") (citing *Medina Betancourt et al. v. Cruz Azul de P.R.*, 155 D.P.R. 735, 742–43 (2001)); *Shearson Hayden Stone, Inc. v. Liang*, 493 F. Supp. 104, 106 (N.D. Ill. 1980), *aff'd.*, 653 F.2d 310 (7th Cir. 1981) ("Interstate commerce is a necessary basis for application of the [FAA]").

In *Bernhardt v. Polygraphic Co. of America*, 350 U.S. 198 (1956), the Supreme Court found that the FAA did not apply did not apply to an employment contract between Polygraphic Co., an employer engaged in interstate commerce, and Norman Bernhardt, the superintendent of the company's lithograph plant in Vermont. The Court found that the contract did not "evidence a transaction involving commerce within the meaning of section 2 of the Act" because there was "no showing that petitioner while performing his duties under the employment contract was working 'in' commerce, was producing goods for commerce, or was engaging in activity that affected commerce." *Bernhardt*, 350 U.S. at 200-01.

Similarly, in *Slaughter v. Stewart Enterprises, Inc.*, No. C 07-01157MHP, 2007 WL 2255221 (N.D. Cal. Aug. 3, 2007), the court found that an "employment contract [did] not involve interstate commerce as required by the [FAA]" where an employee "was employed at a single location," "his employment did not require interstate travel," and "his activities while employed with defendants as well as the events at issue in the underlying suit were confined to

The Court in *Allied-Bruce* also clarified that "the word 'involving' is . . . the functional equivalent of the word 'affecting." 513 U.S. at 273–74.

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Alameda, California 94501

California." See also *Gemini Ambulance Servs., Inc.*, 103 S.W.3d 507 (Tex. App. 2003) (holding FAA not applicable where services performed were confined to Texas).

There is no evidence that the transaction between the parties here involves interstate commerce. Employees who perform work in only one state are not engaged in activity that affects interstate commerce. ¹³ Disputes that arise between these employees and Hobby Lobby may be simple, local disputes governed only by state law, like one missed meal period or rest break. Some disputes might not even be economic, but just claims seeking to resolve personality issues or shift assignments or workplace duties. Whether this kind of local dispute is submitted to individual or group arbitration in its final stages will not make any difference for interstate commerce. ¹⁴ Yet the FUAP purports to govern all this activity, no matter how trivial or local. Such a private arbitration agreement with an individual who does not perform work across state lines, does not transport goods across state lines, and is not seeking to enforce anything other than state law is not a contract evidencing a transaction involving interstate commerce.

The interstate character of Hobby Lobby's retail business does not alter this conclusion. The relevant question here is whether the transaction *between the parties* has an effect on interstate commerce. The fact that one of the parties to the transaction is *independently* involved in interstate commerce does not bring every contract that party enters, no matter how trivial or local, within the reach of the FAA. Even though Polygraphic Co. was an employer that engaged in interstate commerce and operated lithograph plants in multiple states, the Supreme Court still determined that the arbitration agreement in the employment contract between Polygraphic Co. and Bernhardt did not involve interstate commerce. *Bernhardt*, 350 U.S. at 200-01. Even though Hobby Lobby is engaged in a retail business that impacts interstate commerce, an arbitration agreement between Hobby Lobby and an individual employee who does not perform work across state lines is still an agreement about how to resolve generally local disputes that does not involve

The only employees who have been identified as performing work across state lines are transportation workers, exempt from the FAA on other grounds.

¹⁴ For an example of a dispute where no party asserted the FAA applied, see *Carmona v. Lincoln Millennium Car Wash, Inc.*, *supra*.

interstate commerce. As the court observed in *Slaughter*, "[t]he existence of national companies. ... does not undermine the conclusion that the activity is confined to local markets. Techniques of modern finance may result in conglomerations of businesses. . . . [but] the reaches of the Commerce Clause are not defined by the accidents of ownership." Slaughter v. Stewart Enters.,

Similarly, the purchase and transportation of certain inputs from out-of-state does not transform the local nature of the agreement to arbitrate, since those purchases are not part of the arbitration agreement but are merely incidental to the transaction. See Bruner v. Timberlane Manor Ltd. P'ship, 155 P.3d 16, 31 (Okla. 2006) ("The facts that the nursing home buys supplies from out-of-state vendors . . . are insufficient to impress interstate commerce regulation upon the admission contract for residential care between the Oklahoma nursing home and the Oklahoma resident patient."); Saneii v. Robards, 289 F.Supp.2d 855, 860 (W.D. Ky. 2003) (The sale of residential real estate to an out-of-state purchaser had "no substantial or direct connection to interstate commerce," since any movements across state lines were "not part of the transaction itself" but merely "incidental to the real estate transaction"); City of Cut Bank v. Tom Patrick Constr., Inc., 963 P.2d 1283, 1287 (Mont. 1998) (The purchase of insurance and materials from out of state did not impact court's decision that construction contract was a local transaction, not involving interstate commerce).

Citizens Bank v. Alafabco, Inc., 539 U.S. 52 (2003), does not change the analysis. In that case, the Supreme Court held that the FAA could be applied in cases where there was no showing that the individual transaction had a specific effect upon interstate commerce, so long as "in the aggregate the economic activity in question would represent a general practice subject to federal control" and "that general practice bear[s] on interstate commerce in a substantial way." Alafabco, 539 U.S. at 56–57 (internal citations omitted). Under this standard, the Court found that the application of the FAA to certain debt-restructuring contracts was justified given the "broad impact of commercial lending on the national economy" and the facts that the restructured debt was secured by inventory assembled from out-of-state parts and that it was used to engage in

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interstate business. Alafabco, 539 U.S. at 57–58. 15 As the ALJ and other courts have observed, the logic used by the Alafabco court to justify the application of the FAA to a large financial transaction between a bank and a multistate manufacturer is not readily applicable to a private arbitration agreement covering claims that a local employment contract has been breached. Slaughter v. Stewart Enters., Inc., No. C 07-01157MHP, 2007 WL 2255221, at *4 (N.D. Cal. Aug. 3, 2007) (distinguishing the "debt-restructuring contracts involving a manufacturer" at issue in *Alafabco* from a contract "for service type employment that occurred solely within the state"); see also Bridas v. Int'l Standard Elec. Corp., 490 N.Y.S.2d 711, 717 n.3 (N.Y. Sup. Ct. 1985) (contrasting "an agreement based upon a multimillion dollar transfer of stock between an American and Argentine corporation" and the simple allegation of breach of an employment contract at issue in *Bernhardt*). Private arbitration agreements with employees who do not perform work across state lines, do not transport goods across state lines, and are not seeking to enforce anything other than state law are not contracts that involve interstate commerce in the way major debt-restructuring contracts did.

The FAA cannot be stretched so far as to apply to any arbitration agreement between an individual and their employer just because the employer is, for other purposes, engaged in interstate commerce. Such a reading of the FAA would contravene the Supreme Court's decision in *Bernhardt*¹⁶ and raise serious constitutional concerns.

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field." Bernhardt, 350 U.S. at 202.

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Notably, private arbitration agreements on their own were not held to constitute a "general practice" that "bear[s] on interstate commerce in a substantial way." Instead, the Court relied

on other characteristics of the transaction at issue to find the required connection to interstate

In *Bernhardt*, the Court explained that the FAA should be construed narrowly, so as not apply

not work across state lines. The Court warned that allowing the FAA to reach such

to an arbitration agreement between a multistate lithograph company and an employee who did

transactions that did not affect interstate commerce would impermissibly "invade the local law

C. THIS CASE IS BEYOND THE CONSTITUTIONAL REACH OF THE FAA SINCE THERE IS NO SHOWING THAT THE DISPUTES COVERED BY THE FUAP AFFECT INTERSTATE COMMERCE OR THAT THE ACTIVITY OF RESOLVING THOSE DISPUTES AFFECTS INTERSTATE COMMERCE

Under the Commerce Clause, Congress may only regulate "the channels of interstate commerce," 'persons or things in interstate commerce,' and 'those activities that substantially affect interstate commerce." *Nat'l Fed'n of Indep. Bus. v. Sebelius*, 132 S.Ct. 2566, 2578 (2012) (quoting *United States v. Morrison*, 529 U.S. 598, 609 (2000)). Because the FAA was enacted pursuant to the Commerce Clause (*Perry v. Thomas*, 482 U.S. 483, 490 (1987)), it cannot constitutionally be applied here unless the regulated activity has this connection to interstate commerce.

The fact that the employer in this case is independently engaged in interstate commerce cannot supply the necessary connection to commerce, because the FAA is not a regulation of the employer or the employer's retail business. In *Sebelius*, the Supreme Court made it clear that Congress may only use its authority under the Commerce Clause "to regulate classes of *activities*," "not classes of *individuals*, apart from any activity in which they are engaged." *Sebelius*, 132 S.Ct. at 2591 (emphasis in original). Thus, in determining whether a regulation is permissible under the Commerce Clause, the court must not look at the class of individuals affected by the law, but at the actual activities that are being targeted by the law. Following this analysis, the Court ruled that the individual mandate could not be characterized as a regulation of individuals who would eventually consume healthcare, because that is just a class of individuals and not the actual activity regulated by the ACA. *Id.* at 2590-91. Similarly here, the FAA cannot be characterized as a regulation of employers engaged in interstate commerce, because that is just a class of corporate individuals and not the actual activity regulated by the FAA.

The actual activity regulated by the FAA is the resolution of disputes between private individuals. The FAA does not seek to regulate how the employer conducts its business or carries out its commercial activities. The FAA does not purport to regulate any activity other than the narrow aspect of dispute resolution in arbitration. This is the actual activity Congress sought to regulate in the FAA, and such a law passed pursuant to the Commerce Clause cannot be

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(S10) 337-1001

constitutionally applied to the dispute resolution activity here unless this activity is connected to interstate commerce. See *Sebelius*, 132 S.Ct. at 2578.

The activity of resolving disputes between private individuals is not a "channel of interstate commerce," it is not a person or thing "in" interstate commerce, and whether the disputes covered by the FUAP here are resolved in individual or group arbitration does not "substantially affect interstate commerce." Sebelius, 132 S.Ct. at 2578 (quoting Morrison, 529 U.S. at 609). Many of the disputes covered by the FUAP do not implicate interstate commerce or have any substantial effect on interstate commerce. The FUAP is drafted in a way that would extend to any employment dispute. It could encompass a claim for one hour's pay, one missed meal period or rest break, or any other claim that has no impact whatsoever on interstate commerce. It would encompass a claim that was not economic at all, but just an effort to resolve personality issues or shift assignments or workplace duties. See JX 2I p. 12-13 and JX 2J p. 13. If two employees had a "conflict" that was not economic and asked for joint collective arbitration, that dispute would not have any impact on interstate commerce. All non-economic disputes that would have no impact on commerce are covered. ¹⁷ Such local disputes governed by state contract law or state labor law lack any substantial connection to interstate commerce. If the dispute does not affect interstate commerce, regulation of the resolution of the dispute is not within the scope of the Commerce Clause, and the FAA cannot constitutionally apply. 18 Whether a dispute between Hobby Lobby and its employees is ultimately resolved in individual or group arbitration does not have an impact on any issue of interstate commerce. Because the employer has not shown that the disputes covered by the FUAP would affect interstate commerce or that the activity of resolving those disputes in individual or group arbitration would affect interstate commerce, the FAA cannot constitutionally be applied here.

The Christian Colation methods of resolution encourage mediation of disputes, and this would include resolution of non-eocnomic disputes among employees or between employees and the employer and its bosses. These kinds of disputes would have no impact on commerce.

¹⁸ Concededly, some of the disputes that may arise could affect commerce. But the FUAP is drafted in a way that would cover every dispute that could potentially arise. Hobby Lobby cannot maintain the burden of its defense that every claim would affect commerce so as to trigger the FAA.

Even though the FAA cannot constitutionally target the dispute resolution activity here, ¹⁹ the NLRA can constitutionally regulate dispute resolution activity between employers and their employees. This is not anomalous. The NLRA was passed pursuant to explicit Congressional findings that "[t]he inequality of bargaining power between employees who do not possess full freedom of association or actual liberty of contract and employers who are organized in the corporate or other forms of ownership association substantially burdens and affects the flow of commerce." 29 U.S.C. § 151. The Supreme Court has explained that Section 7 of the NLRA embodies the effort of Congress to remedy this problem. NLRB v. City Disposal Sys. Inc., 465 U.S. 822, 835 (1984) ("[I]t is evident that, in enacting §7 of the NLRA, Congress sought generally to equalize the bargaining power of the employee with that of his employer by allowing employees to band together in confronting an employer regarding the terms and conditions of their employment."). The NLRA can thus reach dispute resolution as a necessary part of its regulation of the employment relationship, designed to address the inequality in bargaining power that burdens interstate commerce. See NLRB v. Jones & Laughlin Steel Corp., 301 U.S. 1, 37 (1937) (recognizing that regulation of local, intrastate activity is permissible as a necessary part of a larger regulatory scheme). Unlike the NLRA, the FAA is not a larger regulation of employment and does not seek to change the fundamental ways employers and workers relate to each other in order to confront the labor strife that impedes interstate commerce. It seeks to regulate the private dispute resolution activity of individuals apart from its content or context and this is impermissible. Congress may not focus on the intrastate dispute resolution activities of private

Congress may not focus on the intrastate dispute resolution activities of private individuals apart from a larger regulation of economic activity. See *United States v. Lopez*, 514 U.S. 549, 558 (1995) (quoting *Maryland v. Wirtz*, 392 U.S. 183, 197 n.27 (1968)) (The Court has never declared that "Congress may use a relatively trivial impact on commerce as an excuse for

296 Conn. 1, 26, 993 A.2d 955, 969 (2010) (finding statute constitutional under Commerce

Clause because it regulates industry, not litigation).

The courts in Stampolis v. Provident Auto Leasing Co., 586 F.Supp.2d 88 (E.D.N.Y. 2008),

and City of New York v. Beretta, 524 F.3d 384 (2d Cir. 2008), recognized that litigation is different from the activity of the entity involved in the litigation. See also Rodriguez v. Testa,

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a general regulatory statute bears a substantial relation to commerce, the de minimis character of
individual instances arising under that statute is of no consequence." (emphasis in original)).
The Supreme Court has said that regulation of intrastate activity is permissible where it is one of
the "essential parts of a larger regulation of economic activity" and the "regulatory scheme could
be undercut unless the intrastate activity were regulated." Lopez, 514 U.S. at 561. The relevant
statutory regime here is the FAA. By its terms, the FAA addresses only individual transactions.
9 U.S.C. § 2 (applying the terms of the act to "a written provision in any maritime transaction or
contract evidencing a transaction involving commerce"). Therefore, the regulatory scheme does
not encompass wide sectors of economic activity in a general fashion but rather applies to
individual transactions or contracts. Regulation of a local dispute that does not itself have any
effect on interstate commerce is not a necessary part of the regulatory scheme. Similarly, failure
to enforce arbitration provisions in purely intrastate contracts would not subvert the entire
statutory scheme in the same way as the failure to regulate purely intrastate marijuana production
would undercut regulation of interstate marijuana trafficking. <i>Gonzales v. Raich</i> , 545 U.S. 1, 26
(2005). Because regulation of the intrastate activity here is "not an essential part of a larger
regulation of economic activity, in which the regulatory scheme could be undercut unless the
intrastate activity were regulated," it "cannot be sustained under our cases upholding
regulations of activities that arise out of or are connected with a commercial transaction, which
viewed in the aggregate, substantially affects interstate commerce." Lopez, 514 U.S. at 561. As a
result, there are no constitutional grounds for applying the FAA to intrastate dispute resolution
activity that bears only a trivial effect on interstate commerce.
Because the application of the FAA depends on the Commerce Clause, and because the

broad general regulation of state or private activities.' Rather, 'the Court has said only that where

forum in which this employment dispute is resolved does not have a substantial effect on interstate commerce, the FAA cannot be used to prohibit or interfere with protected concerted activity under the NLRA.

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D. THERE IS NO "CONTROVERSY" SUBJECT TO THE FAA

The FAA applies to "a contract evidencing a transaction involving commerce to settle by arbitration a controversy thereafter arising out of such contract or transaction." There is no controversy here. No employee has asserted any claim. No employee has asserted any claim because the FUAP is not an effective means of resolving individual claims. Group or class claims are prohibited. The FAA is only triggered by its terms when there is a "controversy." None exists here except whether the provision violates the Act. That controversy, as to whether the FUAP violates the Act, is excluded from the reach of the FUAP. See ALJD p. 17: 9-18-42. Additionally, Hobby Lobby in its Exceptions asserts that this controversy is not subject to the FUAP. Thus, until a concrete controversy develops, the FAA cannot be applied. ²⁰

E. HOBBY LOBBY'S ANALYSIS SHOULD BE REJECTED

Hobby Lobby relies largely on *Alafabco*, *supra*. We have discussed it above. When the Supreme Court addressed the Commerce Clause question in *Alafabco*, it notably did not find that private arbitration agreements on their own were a "general practice" that "bear[s] on interstate commerce in a substantial way." The Court instead relied on other characteristics of the transaction at issue—a multimillion dollar debt restructuring contract between a bank and a multistate manufacturer—to find the necessary connection to interstate commerce. Here, there is no evidence that individual or group "disputes" affect commerce. Hobby Lobby's argument is that as long as its nationwide retail business affects commerce, any employment dispute must also affect commerce. That statement of Hobby Lobby's position demonstrates that it is not logical.

The record reflects two discrete controversies. See Exhibits Y and Z to the Joint Stiplation. Hobby Lobby has not asserted these disputes affect commerce. Even if they did, this would not affect this argument except as to those two discrete controversies. There can be no controversy with the Charging Party, who is not subject to the FUAP and who is not an employee. We use the pronoun "who" since the Committee is a person.

Thus its aggregation argument based on *Circuit City Stores v. Adams*, 532 U.S. 105 (2001), and *E.E.O.C. v. Waffle House*, 534 U.S. 279 (2002), is inapposite. Neither of these cases involved challenges based on the reach of the commerce power, and so the Supreme Court did not address the statutory question of whether the arbitration agreements in these cases were part of contracts evidencing transactions involving commerce or the constitutional question of whether the FAA could constitutionally be applied in such situations.

Hobby Lobby also argues the issue was resolved in *Circuit Cty Stores v Adams*, 194 F. 3d 070, 1072 (9th Cir. 1999), *reversed*, 532 U.S. 1070 (2001). It hardly serves as precedent when the Ninth Circuit's decision was that the alleged employment agreement was not governed by the FAA. Hobby Lobby points to no case that has squarely held that an employment arrangement that disclaims that it is an employment agreement is an agreement for FAA purposes.

F. SUMMARY

In summary, the National Labor Relations Act may regulate the business of this employer because of the impact on commerce. No one disputes that. The Federal Arbitration Act, however, regulates the specific activity of dispute resolution in the form of arbitration, and that activity does not affect commerce within the Commerce Clause. Alternatively, the FAA regulates only employment disputes that affect commerce. Further, there is no contract subject to the FAA nor is there any controversy subject to the FAA.

The Board must address this constitutional issue. It cannot do so by applying the doctrine of constitutional avoidance. Here, Hobby Lobby relies for its core argument on the FAA. Either it applies or it doesn't. The Board cannot duck and weave and avoid.²²

VIII. THE APPLICATION OF THE FEDERAL ARBITRATION ACT CANNOT OVERRIDE THE IMPORTANT PURPOSES OF OTHER FEDERAL STATUTES THAT ALLOW EMPLOYEES TO SEEK RELIEF FROM THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT FOR THE BENEFIT OF THEMSELVES AND OTHER WORKERS

The Board must address directly the question of whether the Federal Arbitration Act may trump the application of the National Labor Relations Act as to other federal statutes that allow whistle-blowing or independent administrative remedies. As the Board correctly found in *Murphy Oil USA, Inc., supra*, there are important purposes underpinning Section 7 that are not addressed by the Federal Arbitration Act. That equally applies to claims that employees can

The Board will avoid the constitutional issue as to the truck drivers because the FAA does not by its terms apply. It could avoid the constitutional issue by finding in agreement with our arguments above that the FAA does not apply where there is no contract of employment or controversy and thus the FAA does not apply.

²³ The ALJ did not address this issue.

make under other federal statutes regarding workplace issues. Here, we point out that the FUAP provision effectively undermines those other federal statutes. Thus, the restriction found in the FUAP, that any remedy is "individual" only, would interfere with other federal statutory schemes, which envision and, in some cases, require remedies that will affect a group. The Board has been admonished by the Supreme Court in *Hoffman Plastic Compounds v. NLRB*, 535 U.S. 137 (2002), that it must respect other federal enactments. Here, the Board should recognize that there are many federal statutes that allow group, collective or class claims or even individual claims that affect a group. The FAA cannot be used to defeat the purposes of those statutes.

Employees have the right to bring to various federal agencies all kinds of issues that affect them and other workers. Under these statutes, they have the right to seek relief from those agencies for their own benefit as well as for the benefit of other workers or employees of the employer. Those remedies can involve government investigations, injunctive relief, and federal court actions by those agencies, and debarment from federal contracts, workplace monitoring and many other remedies that would be collective and concerted in nature.

In effect, the FUAP would prohibit an employee from invoking on his/her behalf, as well as on behalf of other employees, protections of these various federal statutes. It would prohibit the agency or the court from remedying violations of the law that the agency or court would be empowered, if not required, to remedy.

The Congressional Research Service has identified forty different federal laws that contain anti-retaliation and whistleblower protection. See Jon O. Shimabukuro et al., Cong. Research Serv. Report No. R43045, *Survey of Federal Whistleblower and Anti-Retaliation Laws* (April 22, 2013), *available at* http://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R43045.pdf. These are all laws that relate directly to workplace issues. Nothing in the Federal Arbitration Act preempts the application of other federal laws. Some examples are mentioned below.

We emphasize that what is not at issue is the individual right of employees to file claims of any kind with federal agencies or in federal court. Where the action is not concerted and not for mutual aid or protection, the NLRA is not implicated. It is only when the action is concerted and for mutual aid or protection that NLRA Section 7 protection is triggered. This discussion assumes that an employee may invoke these other federal laws to benefit herself and other employees.

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FAA purposes.

WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD A Professional Corporation 1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200 Alameda, California 94501 (510) 337-1001 kind of claim is necessarily brought as a group action, since the relief sought includes a remedy for the underpayment of a group of workers.

The FUAP would prohibit an employee from bringing a claim to the Department of Labor that Hobby Lobby violates the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act regarding employment of minors unless the individual were herself an under-aged minor.

The FUAP, by its terms, undermines the enforcement of these federal statutes, which envision private efforts to enforce their purposes for all employees and for the public interest.

There is no escaping the conclusion that there are a multitude of federal laws that govern the workplace. The FUAP prohibits an employee acting collectively or to benefit others ²⁶ from seeking assistance before those agencies and in court to effectuate the purposes of those statutes. The FUAP would prohibit the employee from doing so for the benefit of employees acting collectively. The purposes of those statutes would include not only individual relief for the employee himself or herself, but also relief that would protect the public interest in enforcement of those statutes. ²⁷

For these reasons, the FUAP itself is invalid, not only because it would prohibit an employee from seeking concerted relief with respect to other federal statutes, but also because it would prohibit the employee from seeking relief that would benefit other employees. The FAA cannot serve to interfere with the enforcement of other federal statutes. As we show, this conflict is particularly heightened with the RFRA, which expressly overrides other federal statutes. The ALJ should expressly rule that the application of the FAA interferes with important policies under other federal statutes.

²⁶ The FUAP would prevent an employee from seeking assistance of others to proceed collectively. An employee could be disciplined for seeking to invoke a collective action on the theory that this would violate the company policy contained in the FUAP.

²⁷ The Supreme Court has not addressed this issue in any employment arbitration cases since each case has been an individual claim without the argument that the claim serves any public purpose. *Iskanian*, *supra*, implicates that issue.

IX. THE FUAP WOULD PROHIBIT COLLECTIVE ACTIONS THAT ARE NOT PREEMPTED BY FAA UNDER STATE LAW

This issue is dependent on the fact that the FUAP applies in California and other states with similar statutory schemes. The California Supreme Court has ruled recently that an arbitration agreement cannot foreclose application of the Private Attorney General Act, Labor Code § 2699 and 2699.3. See *Iskanian v. C.L.S. Transp.*, 59 Cal.4th 348 (2014), *cert. denied*U.S. (2014). See also *Sakkab v. Luxottica Retail N. Am., Inc.*, 803 F.3d 425 (9th Cir. 2015).

There are numerous other provisions in the Labor Code that permit concerted action. See, e.g., *Sonic-Calabasas A, Inc. v. Moreno*, 57 Cal.4th 1109 (2013), *cert. denied*, 134 S.Ct. 2724 (2014) (arbitration policy cannot categorically prohibit a worker from taking claims to Labor Commissioner, although state law is also preempted from categorically allowing all claims to proceed before the Labor Commissioner in the face of an arbitration policy).

The FUAP would interfere with the substantive right of the California Labor Commissioner to enforce the wage provisions of the Labor Code. See, e.g., Cal. Lab. Code § 217.

There are, additionally, various provisions in the California Labor Code that allow only the Labor Commissioner to award penalties or grant other relief. The enforcement of the FUAP would prevent employees from collectively going to the Labor Commissioner seeking these penalties for themselves or other employees. It would foreclose an employee from asking the Labor Commissioner to seek remedies for a group of employees. See, e.g., Cal. Lab. Code § 210(b) (allowing only the Labor Commissioner to impose specified penalties); Cal. Lab. Code § 218 (authority of district attorney to bring action); Cal. Lab. Code § 225.5(b) (penalty recovered by Labor Commissioner). IWC Order 16, Section 18(A)(3), available at https://www.dir.ca.gov/iwc/IWCArticle16.pdf. Employees could not collectively seek

The burden is on Hobby Lobby to show that there is no other state law that would apply in the same way.

Hobby Lobby operates in many states, and all state law rights would be applicable. Hobby Lobby must show that all state rights that are not preempted are preserved.

enforcement of these remedies because the FUAP prohibits them from bringing claims collectively to that agency.

The recently enacted sick pay law is only enforceable by the Labor Commissioner. See Cal. Lab. Code § 245 (effective July 1, 2015). The FUAP would foreclose enforcement of this new law. Individuals or groups of individuals do not have the right to enforce the law in court or before an arbitrator. For purposes of this case, it would foreclose concerted enforcement of the new law since the arbitration process would not be authorized to enforce a law given exclusively to the Labor Commissioner. It would prevent other public officers from enforcing state law for a class or group upon complaint by employees. Cal. Bus. & Prof. Code § 17204.

Additionally, under state law, there are a number of whistleblower statutes just as there are under federal law. The FUAP would prohibit employees from invoking those statutes for relief that would affect them as well as others. The Labor Commissioner lists thirty-three separate statutes that contain anti-retaliation procedures. See http://www.dir.ca.gov/dlse/FilingADiscriminationComplaint1.pdf.

California has strong statutory protection for whistleblowers. See Cal. Lab. Code § 1101 and 1102. The FUAP defeats the purposes of those statutes that allow groups to bring claims forward to vindicate the public purpose animating those provisions.

Just as the California Supreme Court held in *Iskanian*, there are important public purposes animating these statutes that allow employees to seek assistance from either state agencies or the court system. To prevent employees from seeking relief for other employees in the workplace would effectively deprive them of substantive rights guaranteed by state law. The FAA does not preempt such state laws. See *Iskanian*, *supra*.

The Board must address the question of the application of *Iskanian* and similar doctrines. The FUAP is invalid because it prohibits the exercise of this important state law right, which serves an important public purpose. Once again, the burden is on Hobby Lobby to prove that the

⁰ Many states have employment laws only enforceable by administrative agencies either in administrative procedures or by those agencies in court. The FUAP deprives employees of the right to have their claims pursued by such agencies.

The FUAP prohibits such group claims or consolidation.³³

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THE FUAP UNLAWFULLY PROHIBITS GROUP CLAIMS THAT ARE NOT Χ. CLASS ACTIONS, REPRESENTATIVE ACTIONS, COLLECTIVE ACTIONS OR OTHER PROCEDURAL DEVICES AVAILABLE IN COURT OR OTHER FORA

fora. Here, we make the point that employees have the right to bring their collective disputes

together as a group. Or a group or individual can represent others to bring a group complaint. 32

and former Member Johnson. This point responds to arguments made by Hobby Lobby. These

are claims brought by two or more employees. There is no need to invoke class action, collective

action or any procedural form of collective actions. It is just two or more employees bringing the

same claim and assisting each other.³⁴ Alternatively, it can be two or more employees bringing a

complaint that would require the participation of other employees and would affect them. ³⁵ The

THE FUAP IS INVALID AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7 RIGHTS TO RESOLVE DISPUTES BY CONCERTED ACTIVITY OF BOYCOTTS,

BANNERS, STRIKES, WALKOUTS AND OTHER ACTIVITIES

The FUAP is invalid because it makes it clear that the employees are limited to the

arbitration procedure to resolve disputes. It applies to all disputes, not just disputes that could be

brought in a court or before any agency. It governs any "dispute, demand, claim, controversy."

This would foreclose the employees from engaging in strikes or boycotting activity, expressive

 32 There would be no 8(a)(2) issue if the employer allowed one employee to represent others in

the right to invoke the formalized procedures available in court such as class actions or

As to this theory, the Board does not have to address the argument that employees do not have

Board needs to make it clear that such group claims stand apart from class actions, collective

actions, and representative actions that invoke court adopted procedures.

 $\overline{^{31}}$ The ALJ declined to undertake this analysis. ALJD fn. 7.

one dispute. That representation would not create a labor organization.

country regarding fair scheduling would not be enforceable in arbitration.

The cases focus on the rights of employees to use collective procedures in courts and other

This is an essential point here. It responds to the repeated dissents of Member Miscimarra

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collective actions.

³⁴ The ALJ failed to address this issue.

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³⁵ The other employees would be "necessary" or "indispensable" parties. One example would be disputes about scheduling or harassment by other employees. The laws enacted around the

activity or other public pressure campaigns. This is a form of a yellow dog contract. Here, employees agree that they shall use only the arbitration procedure to resolve disputes with the employer, and thus they would be violating the arbitration procedure if they were to use another forum, such as a public protest or a strike. It prohibits all forms of concerted activity because it requires that employees use the arbitration procedure. Any employee who violates this rule would be subject to discipline just as he/she would be for violating any other employer rule. This is a fundamentally illegal waiver of the Section 7 right to engage in lawful economic activity, including boycotting, picketing, striking, leafleting, bannering and other expressive activity. That language is contained in both FUAPs. It is also contained in the employee application. ³⁶

As we have also noted above, the employer's policies make it plain that employees could be disciplined for not complying with employer policies. Policy 18 indicates that employees will be disciplined for: "Engaging in such conduct as may be consistent with any other Company's policies, procedures, practices or rules." See JX 2I p. 30 and JX J p. 29. This unambiguously includes the FUAP, which is a company policy.

This is furthermore emphasized by the employer's "non-union statement." See JX I p. 9 and JX J p. 9–10. Since that policy is clearly a Company policy, any opposition to that policy would subject an employee to discipline under Rule 18, quoted above. That Union activity could certainly include seeking a Union's assistance in negotiating a better arbitration provision or in invoking the FUAP. Fundamentally, it also would make it unlawful to engage in Union activities such as a strike, picketing, bannering or other concerted activity. The Board's recognition that the FUAP is an unlawful yellow dog contract under the Norris-LaGuardia Act, reaffirms that but does not go far enough. If the FUAP is unlawful under the Norris-LaGuardia Act and Section 7, it is unlawful because it prohibits other concerted means of resolving disputes. Employees are

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 $\overline{^{36}}$ The ALJ did not address this issue.

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not limited to bring claims concertedly before courts or agencies.³⁷ They can do so by direct action.³⁸

The FUAP is an unlawfully imposed no-strike, no boycott, no bannering, no leafleting and no concerted activity ban. It is the worst form of a yellow dog contract.

XII. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT WOULD PROHIBIT SALTING AND APPLIES AFTER EMPLOYMENT ENDS

The FUAP would extend to someone who became employed for the purpose of salting, improving working conditions and organizing since it would restrict his/her right to engage in concerted activity and organize.³⁹ It would prohibit the salt from assisting other employees in pursuing collective claims. Moreover, the FUAP purports to govern even after an employee quits or is fired. If the employee chooses to guit because of miserable working conditions or to organize, she is barred from acting collectively. Hobby Lobby cannot bar an employee who has terminated any employment agreement from acting collectively on behalf of either current employees or other former employees.⁴⁰

XIII. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7 RIGHTS BECAUSE IT FORECLOSES GROUP CLAIMS BROUGHT BY A UNION AS A REPRESENTATIVE OF AN EMPLOYEE OR EMPLOYEES

The FUAP prohibits a union that represents an unrepresented employee from representing that employee in the arbitration procedure.⁴¹ That is, it would prohibit a union from acting on behalf of an employee, not as the collective representative of the group, but rather as the representative of the individual employee. It would also prevent a union from acting as the minority representative or members-only representative of an employee or group of employees.

Surely every employer would rather force employees to resolve disputes in the least friendly fora: the courts and arbitration. The Norris-LaGuardia Act and the NLRA protect the right of employees to settle disputes in the most effective manner: collective action in the streets.

See below where we address the need to overrule Lutheran Heritage-Village Livonia, 343 NLRB 824 (1998). Under current Board law however this ambiguity should be construed against Hobby Lobby. See Murphy Oil, supra, at *26 and other cases cited below.

³⁹ The ALJ did not address this issue.

Some state laws, such as California law, prohibit noncompete clauses. This would conflict with such provisions.

⁴¹ The ALJ did not address this issue.

Such activity is protected. It would prevent a union from acting on behalf of a group of employees.

The FUAP prohibits a union that is recognized or certified from representing employees.

The FUAP would prevent a union, as the representative of its members, or non-labor organization worker center from representing its members where authorized under state or federal law. See *Soc. Servs. Union, Local 535 v. Santa Clara Cty.*, 609 F.2d 944 (9th Cir. 1979) (Union may act as representative of its members in class action); *United Food & Commercial Workers Union Local 751 v. Brown Group., Inc.*, 517 U.S. 544 (1996) (union has associational standing on behalf of its members); *Int'l Molders' & Allied Workers' Local Union No. 164 v. Nelson*, 102 F.R.D. 457 (N.D. Cal. 1983); *Int'l Union, United Auto., Aerospace & Agr. Implement Workers of Am. v. Brock*, 477 U.S. 274 (1986).

The FUAP would prevent a federally recognized Joint Labor Management Committee from pursuing claims. See 29 U.S.C. § 175a.

On all these grounds, the FUAP is unlawful.

XIV. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT IMPOSES ADDITIONAL COSTS ON EMPLOYEES TO BRING EMPLOYMENT RELATED DISPUTES

Although this FUAP does not contain a fundamental flaw that would require an employee to pay arbitration costs, it necessarily increases the costs of employees who bring claims concerning working conditions. They cannot share expert witness fees, deposition costs, copying costs, attorney's fees and many other costs associated with bringing and pursuing claims. Bringing them as a group includes sharing those costs. Sharing costs is concerted activity. Thus, the FAUP expressly penalizes workers by increasing their costs in violation of Section 7.

XV. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL BECAUSE IT WOULD PROHIBIT AN EMPLOYEE OF ANOTHER EMPLOYER FROM ASSISTING A HOBBY LOBBY EMPLOYEE OR JOINING WITH A HOBBY LOBBY EMPLOYEE TO BRING A CLAIM

Separately, an employee of any other employer is also an employee within the meaning of the Act. *Eastex v. NLRB*, 437 U.S. 556 (1978). Such other employee could assist an employee of

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⁴² It would prohibit an employee from joining a non-labor organization that brought litigation against Hobby Lobby on issues affecting working conditions. An employee could not join a worker center, for example, that brought claims by other employees.

Hobby Lobby or join with a claim brought by a Hobby Lobby employee. ⁴³ The rights of all other employees of other employers are violated by the FUAP independently of whether it violates just the Section 7 rights of Hobby Lobby employees. The FUAP cannot apply to an employee of another employer, nor can it prohibit a Hobby Lobby employee from joining with an employee of another employer.

Furthermore, it would prohibit employees of Hobby Lobby from bring group complaints with employees of "affiliates, subsidiaries, officers, directors, agents, attorneys, representative and/or other employees" described in the FUAP even though those "affiliates, subsidiaries, officers, directors, agents, attorneys, representative and/or other employees" are not parties to the FUAP.

XVI. BECAUSE THE EMPLOYER ALLOWS GROUP CLAIMS TO BE BROUGHT, IT HAS NO VALID BUSINESS JUSTIFICATION TO PRECLUDE THEM IN ARBITRATION

The Employer allows employees to bring group claims or concerns concertedly to management's attention. JX 2I p. 12 and JX J p. 12–13 (Open Door Policy). Thus, the Employer allows group claims but forecloses them only when the dispute gets to arbitration. Any legitimate purpose in limiting group, collective or class claims is undermined if the employer allows groups to bring claims concertedly to management's attention.

Even if the FAA did apply and the federal cases that limit the ability of a party to invoke a class-wide arbitration when the arbitration agreement does not explicitly call for group resolution were relevant, the Employer here has negated the limitation by its own policy. Hobby Lobby has an open door policy under which it accepts and resolves group complaints. "It is equally well settled that the advancement of a collective grievance is protected activity, even if the grievance in question is not formally stated or does not take place under the auspices of a contractual grievance procedure." *D. R. Horton*, 357 NLRB No. 184, p. 3 (2012), quoting *Clara Barton Terrace Convalescent Ctr.*, 225 NLRB 1028, 1033 (1976). There is no justifiable rationale

 $[\]overline{^{43}}$ The ALJ did not address this issue.

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001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501

allowing for group complaints at every stage of dispute resolution other than the final step of arbitration.

Applying the tests of either *NLRB v. Erie Resistor Corp.*, 373 U.S. 221 (1963), or *NLRB v. Great Dane Trailers*, 388 U.S. 26 (1967), this conduct is destructive of Section 7 rights because it limits Section 7 activity on its face without a business justification. Here, moreover, it discourages union activity where the employees have selected a union as their representative but are precluded from engaging the union to pursue group claims on their behalf.

XVII. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7 RIGHTS BECAUSE IT APPLIES TO PARTIES WHO ARE NOT THE EMPLOYER BUT MAY BE AGENTS OF THE EMPLOYER OR EMPLOYERS OF OTHER EMPLOYEES UNDER THE ACT

The FUAP is invalid because it applies to other employers. The FUAP extends to disputes with the Company, its "affiliates, subsidiaries, officers, directors, agents, attorneys, representatives and/or other employees." None of them is bound to arbitrate claims against the employee except the Company itself. It does not bind its "affiliates, subsidiaries, officers, directors, agents, attorneys, representatives and/or other employees" affiliated with the employer and so on. Each of these persons could be an employer or joint employer within the meaning of the Act. Yet, the employee is bound to arbitrate claims against those individuals where those claims arise out of wages, hours and working conditions to the extent they are the employer.

There are many wage and hour statutes, including the Fair Labor Standards Act, the California Fair Employment and Housing Act and provisions of the Labor Code, that can impose joint liability. Thus, the FUAP prohibits Section 7 activity against parties who are not the employer and thus is overbroad and invalid. This would affect the employees' right to bring claims against joint employer relationships. See *Browning-Ferris Indus.*, 362 NLRB No. 186 (2015).

As noted below, the ALJ refused to allow the charging party to prove that the arbitration procedure is inefficient, expensive and serves no legitimate purposes. Exception has been taken to the refusal of the ALJ to allow the Committee to prove this.

⁴⁵ In addition, this effort to limit claims against benefit plans is prohibited by ERISA, 29 U.S.C. § 1140, since it interferes with the rights of employees to bring claims against benefit plans.

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Moreover, there is no contract between any employee and these third parties. So the FAA cannot apply. The FUAP cannot apply to non-parties to any agreement with the employees. First Options v. Kaplan, 514 U.S. 938 (1995).

XVIII. THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL AND INTERFERES WITH SECTION 7 RIGHTS BECAUSE IT RESTRICTS THE RIGHT OF WORKERS TO ACT TOGETHER TO DEFEND CLAIMS BY THE EMPLOYER AGAINST THEM

Employees have the right to band together to defend against claims made by the Employer or other employees. 46 Although an employee might choose to refrain from concerted activity against the employer, that employee may wish to engage in joint activity where there are joint or related claims against several employees.

The FUAP imposes a very heavy burden on employees who may be jointly the subject of a claim by the company against them. Under the FUAP, they could not jointly defend themselves but would have to defend themselves individually in separate actions. The employer may have claims against multiple employees, such as overpayments for wages or breach of confidentiality provisions. There may be cross-claims, counter-claims or claims for indemnification. The employees are entitled to defend such claims or pursue such claims jointly and concertedly. 47 The FUAP is facially invalid since it prohibits group action to defend against claims jointly. 48

THE FUAP IS UNLAWFUL UNDER THE NORRIS-LAGUARDIA ACT XIX.

The Norris–LaGuardia Act, 29 U.S.C. § 101 et seq., states that, as a matter of public policy, employees "shall be free from the interference, restraint, or coercion of employers of labor, or their agents, in the designation of . . . representatives [of their own choosing] or in selforganization or in other concerted activities for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid or protection." 29 U.S.C. § 102 (emphasis added). The Act declares that any "undertaking or promise in conflict with the public policy declared in section 102 . . . shall not be

 $[\]overline{^{46}}$ The ALJ did not address this issue.

The FUAP specifically prohibits consolidation. This would be a useful procedure for employees to concertedly defend claims.

For example, employees would have to hire lawyers who would cost more for individual representation. Employees could not share the costs of expert witnesses, document production, depositions etc. The simple fact that individual actions increase the costs on the workers makes it a penalty and violates Section 7.

1	enforceable in any court of the United States." 29 U.S.C. § 103. The FUAP plainly interferes
2	with the rights guaranteed by this federal law. The FAA does not eliminate the rights guaranteed
3	by the Norris-LaGuardia Act. This argument is fully explored in the law review article written by
4	Professor Matthew Finkin, "The Meaning and Contemporary Vitality of the Norris-LaGuardia
5	Act," 93 Neb L. Rev 1 (2014). He forcefully argues that an agreement to waive collective actions
6	is a quintessential yellow dog contract prohibited by the Norris-LaGuardia Act. The ALJ agreed.
7	We repeat this here to reinforce our arguments.

XX. THE FUAP IS INVALID BECAUSE IT IS UNCLEAR AS TO WHAT IT COVERS,

AND THEREFORE IT IS OVERBROAD; THE DECISION IN LUTHERAN
HERITAGE VILLAGE-LIVONIA SHOULD BE OVERRULED; THE BOARD HAS
NOW EFFFECTIVELY OVERRULED LUTHERAN HERITAGE VILLAGE-

LIVONIA AND SHOULD EXPRESSLY DO SO

A. INTRODUCTION

The FUAP is ambiguous as to what it covers. The parties dispute, for example, whether the FUAP covers matters brought to the NLRB. It isn't clear how it applies to the federal False Claims Act and various whistleblower statutes. Fundamentally, Charging Party explains above that other company policies govern the FUAP. If Hobby Lobby disputes that those policies apply to the FUAP, it has created the kind of uncertainty that should be construed against it. This ambiguity certainly extends to whether the FUAP prohibits or limits employee rights to file charges with the National Labor Relations Board. *Professional Janitorial Serv.*, 363 NLRB No. 35 (2015).

Recently, the Board has made it clear that, where language "creates an ambiguity," that ambiguity "must be construed against the Respondent as the drafter of the [rule]." *Murphy Oil U.S.A., Inc.*, 361 NLRB No. 72 at *26 (2014). *Professional Janitorial Serv.*, *supra*, at n. 8, and *Caesars Entertainment*, 362 NLRB No. 190 at *1 (2015). The Board relied upon its prior decision in *Lafayette Park Hotel*, 326 NLRB 824, 828 (1998), *enforced*, 203 F.3d 52 (D.C. Cir. 1999) in reaching this conclusion. Thus, since the FUAP is unclear, it should be construed against the company to prohibit all forms of concerted activity and thus is overbroad.

Additionally, this case illustrates precisely why the Board's decision in *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia*, 343 NLRB 646 (2004), should be overruled.⁴⁹

B. THE BOARD SHOULD DISCARD LUTHERAN HERITAGE VILLAGE-LIVONIA TO THE TRASH HEAP OF DISCREDITED DECISIONS

The Board should return to the rule established in *Lafayette Park Hotel*, 326 NLRB 824 (1998). The Board in *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia*, 343 NLRB 646 (2004), imposed an unworkable and unreasonable doctrine for evaluating when employer-maintained rules are unlawful. It modified the previously existing rule expressed in *Lafayette Park Hotel*, 326 NLRB 824 (1998). See also *Ark Las Vegas Rest. Corp.*, 343 NLRB 1281, 1283 (2004) (any ambiguity in a rule that restricts concerted activity can be construed against the employer).

The Board's application of the *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* rule ignores the basic concept that if some employees can read the language as interfering with Section 7 rights, then there is a violation because some employees have had their rights unlawfully interfered with or restricted. The fact that someone may be able to read the rule as not reaching Section 7 activity allows employers to chill the Section 7 rights of those who reasonably read the rule as reaching Section 7 activity. Those who read the rule as not to limit Section 7 activity may have no interest in such activity. They may assert their right to "refrain from such activity." But those who choose to engage in such activity have their conduct chilled, if not prohibited. The Board's rule is a form of tyranny of some or a few over the rights of those who want to engage in Section 7 activity. If an employer's action interferes with the Section 7 rights of one employee, the conduct violates the Act. The *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* rule assumes that conduct violates the Act only if many, and probably a majority, would have their rights violated. Such a rule should be discarded and thrown into the trash pile of discredited doctrines.

In Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia, the Board adopted the following presumption:

Where, as here, the rule does not refer to Section 7 activity, we will not conclude that a reasonable employee would read the rule to apply to such activity simply because the rule *could* be interpreted that way. To take a different analytical approach would require the

Furthermore, to the extent the rules discussed in Part VI above are ambiguous, they should be construed against Hobby Lobby.

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EINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD Professional Corporation Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200 Alameda, California 94501 Board to find a violation whenever the rule could conceivably be read to cover Section 7 activity, even though that reading is unreasonable. We decline to take that approach.

Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia, 343 NLRB at 647.

This doctrine has created confusion and uncertainty in the application of rules. Moreover, it is an illogical statement. If the "rule could be interpreted that way [to prohibit Section 7 activity]," the rule should be unlawful. We are not suggesting that if that "reading is unreasonable," it should violate the Act. Only if the rule can be reasonably read to interfere with Section 7 activity should it be found unlawful. This is the rule of ambiguity. If the rule is ambiguous and could reasonably be read by some to interfere with or prohibit Section 7 activity, it should be unlawful. Here, this is heightened by the fact that, as illustrated above, the Employer's Chief Executive Officer cannot explain the scope of the FUAP. If he can't do so, no employee can easily construe it. In fact, we believe that in most cases, if you ask the president of the company to explain their corporate rules, they can't explain how they would apply in most common circumstances where Section 7 rights are at issue. This case incisively illustrates why *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* should be overruled.

The Board's prior rule in *Lafayette Park Hotel*, cited above, is to construe any ambiguity against the employer. This has been the consistent application in many areas of law, including the Board's application of employer-created rules. After all, the employer has control over what it says, and it can implement language that is not vague or ambiguous. This is inherently true of most employer rules, but quite clear in this case. Only the employer benefits from chilling and restricting Section 7 activity. Recently, the Board seemed to have made it plain in Murphy Oil, supra, where there is an ambiguity it would be construed against the Employer.

A worker is not at fault if the employer makes a statement that is ambiguous and could affect or chill Section 7 rights. The employer statement should be construed against the employer. Where there is any reasonable interpretation of the rule that could interfere with Section 7 activity, the rule should be deemed unlawful. Employers will necessarily make rules ambiguous to chill such activity unless required to make them clear. Ambiguity gives them wider

discretion and more power. Such ambiguities necessarily coerce some employees.

This interpretation has become one by which the Board ignores the illegal yet reasonable interpretation as long as there is a reasonable interpretation that is not unlawful. The Board has turned the law on its head; where there is a reasonable interpretation that the rule does not affect Section 7 rights, which only a few employees may apply, it makes no difference that most or many of the employees would apply a reasonable interpretation that the rule prohibits Section 7 activity.

Put in other words, the burden should be on the drafter and maintainer of a rule to prove that "no employee," not a single one, "would reasonably construe" the rule in a way to cover or limit Section 7 activity. If any employee could reasonably construe the rule as limiting Section 7 activity, it would be unlawful.

This is further illustrated by the Board's recent decision in *Three D, LLC d/b/a Triple Play Sports Bar & Grille*, 361 NLRB No. 31 (2014). The majority found the "term 'inappropriate' to be 'sufficiently imprecise' that employees would reasonably understand it to encompass 'discussion and interactions protected by Section 7." Slip Opinion p. 7. This is almost a formulation that where there is an ambiguity in a phrase or rule it should be construed against the drafter and enforcer of the rule, namely the employer. This contradicts, to some degree, the later statement that "many Board decisions [] have found a rule unlawful if employees would reasonably interpret it to prohibit protected activities." Slip Opinion p. 8. The word "would" should be replaced with the word "could." This would shift the burden to the employer to clarify its rules to eliminate interference with Section 7 rights.

Recently, the Board has also made it clear that where language "creates an ambiguity," that ambiguity "must be construed against the Respondent as the drafter of the [rule]." *Murphy Oil U.S.A., Inc.*, 361 NLRB No. 72 at *19 (2014). The Board relied upon its prior decision in *Lafayette Park Hotel*, 326 NLRB No. 824, 828 (1998), *enforced*, 203 F.3d 52 (D.C. Cir. 1999). Here, there are patent ambiguities in the FUAP and the policies governing the FUAP. Thus, there is an ambiguity created that must be construed in light of *Murphy Oil* against the drafter of the

rules, namely the employer.⁵⁰ Under these circumstances, this is the perfect case in which to overrule *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia*. It is particularly an appropriate case in which to overrule that doctrine because the employer couldn't explain the rules. If the employer can't explain the rules, no employee could be expected to understand what position or conduct is prohibited or permitted.

The *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* application has allowed an interpretation of employer rules to be created from the employer perspective rather than from the view of a worker. Where the worker could read any reasonable interpretation into the rule that would prohibit Section 7 activity, it is overbroad as to that worker or a group of workers. The fact that some workers might reasonably construe it not to prohibit such Section 7 activity does not invalidate the fact that at least some employees could reasonably read the rule to prohibit Section 7 activity, and thus the rule would chill those activities. Where one employee understands the rule to prohibit Section 7 protected activity, at least an interference with Section 7 activity has been created.

We quote at length the dissent, and we will ask this Board to return to the view of the dissent:

In Lafayette Park Hotel, supra at 825, the Board recognized that determining the lawfulness of an employer's work rules requires balancing competing interests. The Board thus relied upon the Supreme Court's view, as stated in Republic Aviation v. NLRB, 324 U.S. 793, 797-798 (1945), that the inquiry involves "working out an adjustment between the undisputed right of self-organization assured to employees under the Wagner Act and the equally undisputed right of employers to maintain discipline in their establishments." 326 NLRB at 825. While purporting to apply the Board's test in *Lafayette Park Hotel*, the majority loses sight of this fundamental precept. Ignoring the employees' side of the balance, the majority concludes that the rules challenged here are lawful solely because it finds that they are clearly intended to maintain order in the workplace and avoid employer liability. The majority's incomplete analysis belies the objective nature of the appropriate inquiry: "whether the rules would reasonably tend to chill employees in the exercise of their Section 7 rights."

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It is worth noting that these rules were adopted in 2002 and haven't been modified since then. Thus, the employer has made no effort to comply with current Board law.

Our colleagues properly acknowledge that even if a "rule does not explicitly restrict activity protected by Section 7," it will still violate Section 8(a)(1) if—among other, alternative possibilities— "employees would reasonably construe the language to prohibit Section 7 activity." On this point, of course, the established test does not require that the only reasonable interpretation of the rule is that it prohibits Section 7 activity. To the extent that the majority implies otherwise, it errs. Such an approach would permit Section 7 rights to be chilled, as long as an employer's rule could reasonably be read as lawful. This is not how the Board applies Section 8(a)(1). See, e.g., *Double D Construction Group, Inc.*, 339 NLRB 303, 304 (2003) ("The test of whether a statement is unlawful is whether the words could reasonably be construed as coercive, whether or not that is the only reasonable construction").

The majority asserts that it has considered the employees' side of the balance, in that it has found that the purpose behind the Respondent's rules—to maintain order and protect itself from liability—is so clear that it will be apparent to employees and thus could not reasonably be misunderstood as interfering with Section 7 activity. Although the Respondent's assertedly pure motive in creating such rules may be crystal clear to our colleagues, it may not be as obvious to the Respondent's employees, especially in light of the other unlawful rules maintained by the Respondent. Rather, for reasons explained below, we find that the challenged rules are facially ambiguous. The Board construes such ambiguity against the promulgator. *Norris/O'Bannon*, 307 NLRB 1236, 1245 (1992), quoting *Paceco*, 237 NLRB 299 fn. 8 (1978).

Id. at 650 (footnote omitted).

This reasoning was correct then and governs now.

C. THE BOARD HAS EFFECTIVELY OVERRULED LUTHERAN HERITAGE VILLAGE-LIVONIA BY APPLYING THE RULE OF CONSTRUING AMBIGUITIES AGAINST THE EMPLOYER

The Board has already effectively overruled *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia*. It has in recent cases made it clear that "[w]here employees would reasonably read an ambiguous rule to restrict their Section 7 rights, the Board construes the ambiguity in the rule against the rule's promulgator. See *Lafayette Park Hotel*, 326 NLRB 824, 828 (1998), *enfd.*, 203 F.3d 52 (D.C. Cir. 1999). *Professional Janitorial Serv.*, 363 NLRB No. 35, n.8 (2015), *Murphy Oil USA*, *supra*, and *Caesars Entertainment*, *supra*. *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* cannot survive the logic. Once there is an ambiguity, some employees will construe the rule to prohibit Section 7 activity. It is then inconsistent to hold that when the hypothetical employee who is deemed reasonable (meaning the NLRB) reads it one way, the Board ignores the other reasonable employees who

read the rule to proscribe Section 7 activity. In effect, the Board has overruled *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia*, and it should now so state.

D. CONCLUSION

In summary, *Lutheran Heritage Village-Livonia* should be overruled. Alternatively the Board should concede that it has effective done so.

XXI. THE ALJ IMPROPERLY APPROVED THE JOINT MOTION OF THE GENERAL COUNSEL AND THE RESPONDENT TO SUBMIT THIS MATTER ON A STIPULATED RECORD

The Charging Party objected to the submission of this case on the stipulated record. The ALJ overruled those objections in an Order dated June 29, 2015.. The Charging Party advances this Exception as to evidence and arguments that would further support the application of the RFRA discussed below and other issues. We construe the Objections as offers of proof which were rejected in that Order issued by the ALJ.

The Charging Party offered to prove that the brand of religion espoused by Hobby Lobby and its owners has a core tenet of concerted protected activity. That is, the religion encourages its members and adherents to engage in helping workers improve their wages, hours and working conditions through concerted activity. Workers are taught that it is a core principle of the religion that people should help other people with respect to their daily lives. Included in those precepts is encouraging members and adherents of the religion to help others, whether they are members or adherents of the religion or not, with their workplace issues affecting wages, hours and working conditions. This is quintessential concerted activity for mutual aid or protection. ⁵¹

The Charging Party offered to prove that Hobby Lobby, on many occasions, has encouraged employees to work with other employees to resolve workplace issues. Hobby Lobby has often brought employees together to work out issues involving wages, hours and working conditions among themselves and with management. The employees have been counseled that working together to resolve these problems is a religious belief and tenet.

The ALJ considered this issue beyond the scope of the General Counsel's case. This argument advanced by the Charging Party did not change the General Counsel's case, it advanced a legal argument in support. Under the ALJ reasoning, Respondents or Charging Party could not raise any other legal argument. Cf. *Hoffman Plastic Compounds v. NLRB* 535 U.S. 137 (2002)

The Charging Party offered to prove that, as part of the brand of religion espoused by Hobby Lobby and its owners, owners of businesses (i.e., employers) are encouraged to share their wealth with their employees. They are also encouraged to share their wealth with employees of other employers. This is quintessential good faith bargaining.

The Charging Party offered to prove that the same is true of many other religions.

The Charging Party offered to prove that this is a core principle of other religions.

The Charging Party offered to prove that, as part of these core tenets, religions teach that employees should work together to assist each other to improve their working conditions, including working conditions that affect each other, and in working out their problems regarding wages, hours and working conditions with their employers.

The Charging Party offered to prove that these are core tenets of religions of employees of Hobby Lobby and employees of other employers. Further, the Charging Party offered to prove that employees of Hobby Lobby and other employers hold these views as sincere religious beliefs.

The Charging Party offered to prove that the arbitration procedure contained in Hobby Lobby's policies, either using the American Arbitration Association or the Christian Conciliation, is a process that is time consuming, expensive and inefficient. The Charging Party will prove that it is not more inexpensive, efficient and streamlined than court proceedings. The procedures do not serve the purposes of the Federal Arbitration Act and also interfere with effective vindication of Section 7 rights.

The Charging Party offered to prove that Hobby Lobby has disciplined many employees for violations of company policies. The Charging Party offered to prove that employees have been warned, counseled, suspended and discharged for violation of many company policies.

Thus, employees would reasonably understand that a violation of the FUAP could lead to discipline.

The Charging Party offered to prove the Rules of the American Arbitration Association require confidentiality, which interferes with the Section 7 rights of employees to disclose the

proceedings. The Rules of the Christian Conciliation encourage application of religious principles, which include the above tenet of employees helping other employees solve workplace disputes. The Rules of the Christian Conciliation do not prohibit group, collective, class or representative actions.

Charging Party offered to prove that some of the "affiliates, subsidiaries, officers, directors, agents, attorneys, representative and/or other employees" described in the FUAP are employers within the meaning of 29 U.S.C. § 152(2) and that those employer commerce activities fall within the Board's jurisdiction.

The Charging Party offered to prove that arbitration is not a speedy, efficient or expeditious remedy. The ALJ rejected this as contrary to Board precedent. See Order p 2. But the Board has never ruled on a factual record that arbitration serves any business purpose other than to make concerted activity more difficult and virtually impossible. Without establishing the legitimate business purpose, the FUAP cannot withstand a challenge. See Robert Gorman and Matthew Finkin, "Labor Law Analysis and Advocacy, (JURIS 2013) Chapter 8.2 (explaining basis of right of employer to limit Section 7 activity depends on business justification)

XXII. THE RELIGIOUS FREEDOM RESTORATION ACT EXTENDS TO THE CORE RELIGIOUS ACTIVITY OF HELPING OTHER WORKERS, AND THE FAA NLRA AND NORRIS-LAGUARDIA ACT HAVE TO BE APPLIED TO PROTECT THIS RELIGIOUS RIGHT

Section 7 protects the right of employees to engage in concerted protected activity. That extends to asking for help in work place issues from other employees. Fresh & Easy Neighborhood Market, 361 NLRB No 12 (2014). Such concerted activity is a central principle of religion, including the brand of religion that Hobby Lobby professes in the work place. Section 7 activity is a core religious activity. The solidarity principle drawn from this case is the essence of religion. Protected concerted activity for mutual aid and protection is core religious activity.

In 1993, Congress enacted the Religious Freedom Restoration Act. 42 U.S.C. § 2000bb— 2000bb-4. It was enacted in response to a Supreme Court decision, *Employment Division v*. Smith, 494 U.S. 872 (1990), which many saw as restricting the exercise of religion.

The Act in relevant part provides:

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1	(a) In general
Government shall not substantially burden a person's exercise of religion even if the burden results from a rule of general applicability, except as provided in subsection (b) of this section.	
4	(b) Exception
5	Government may substantially burden a person's exercise of religion only if it demonstrates that application of the burden to the
6	person
7	(1) is in furtherance of a compelling governmental interest; and
8	(2) is the least restrictive means of furthering that compelling governmental interest.(c) Judicial relief
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10	A person whose religious exercise has been burdened in violation
11	of this section may assert that violation as a claim or defense in a judicial proceeding and obtain appropriate relief against a
12	government. Standing to assert a claim or defense under this section shall be governed by the general rules of standing under article III of the Constitution.
14	The statute does not apply to state government. See, <i>City of Boerne v. P. F. Flores</i> , 521
15	U.S. 507 (1997). ⁵²
16	The RFRA has been the subject of litigation. It, however, came boldly to the attention of
17	the public in Burwell v. Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc., supra.
18	Hobby Lobby operates according to "Christian" principles;
19	Hobby Lobby's statement of purpose commits the Greens to "[h]onoring the Lord in all [they] do by operating the company in a
20	manner consistent with Biblical principles." App. in No. 13–354, pp. 134–135 (complaint). Each family member has signed a pledge to run the businesses in accordance with the family's religious beliefs and to use the family assets to support Christian ministries. 723 F.3d, at 1122. In accordance with those commitments, Hobby Lobby and Mardel stores close on Sundays, even though the Greens calculate that they lose millions in sales annually by doing so. <i>Id.</i> , at 1122; App. in No. 13–354, at 136–137.
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24	Burwell v. Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc., supra, 134 S.Ct. at 2766.
25	Moreover, the Court noted:
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27	⁵² Congress subsequently amended the RFRA to apply, in part, to certain state actions. See
28	Religious Land Use and Institutionalized Persons Act of 2000, 42. U.S.C. § 2000cc, et seq.

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ROSER Even if we were to reach this argument, we would find it unpersuasive. As an initial matter, it entirely ignores the fact that the Hahns and Greens[owners of Hobby Lobby] and their companies have religious reasons for providing health-insurance coverage for their employees. Before the advent of ACA, they were not legally compelled to provide insurance, but they nevertheless did so—in part, no doubt, for conventional business reasons, but also in part because their religious beliefs govern their relations with their employees. See, App. to Pet. for Cert. in No. 13–356, p. 11g; App. in No. 13–354, at 139.

Id.

The statement of purpose described above comes directly from the Employee Handbook. See, JX 2I p. 6 and JX 2J p. 6.⁵³ The Supreme Court in *Burwell* held that the application of a portion of the Affordable Care Act imposes substantial burden on the religious beliefs of the owners of Hobby Lobby. It did so because there was a regulation requiring that contraceptives be provided over the religious objections of the owners. The Court held that this "contraceptive mandate imposes a substantial burden on the exercise of religion." *Id.* at 2779.

The Court then went on to state:

The Religious Freedom Restoration Act of 1993 (RFRA) prohibits the "Government [from] substantially burden[ing] a person's exercise of religion even if the burden results from a rule of general applicability" unless the Government "demonstrates that application of the burden to the person—(1) is in furtherance of a compelling governmental interest; and (2) is the least restrictive means of furthering that compelling governmental interest." 42 U.S.C. §§ 2000bb–1(a), (b). As amended by the Religious Land Use and Institutionalized Persons Act of 2000 (RLUIPA), RFRA covers "any exercise of religion, whether or not compelled by, or central to, a system of religious belief." § 2000cc–5(7)(A).

Id. at 2754.

Recently, the Tenth Circuit described the application of the RFRA:

Most religious liberty claimants allege that a generally applicable law or policy without a religious exception burdens religious exercise, and they ask courts to strike down the law or policy or excuse them from compliance. Our circuit's three most recent RFRA cases fall into this category. In *Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc. v. Sebelius,* 723 F.3d 1114 (10th Cir.2013) (en banc), *aff'd sub nom. Hobby Lobby,* — U.S. —, 134 S.Ct. 2751, 189 L.Ed.2d 675, the

The description of Mardell, Inc., a subsidiary, has a more direct religious function because, apparently, Mardell operates "Christian and Educational Supply Stores in numerous states. JX 2J p. 6.

ACA required the plaintiffs to provide their employees with health insurance coverage of contraceptives against their religious beliefs. In Yellowbear v. Lampert, 741 F.3d 48 (10th Cir.2014), a prison policy denied the plaintiff access to a sweat lodge, where he wished to exercise his Native American religion. In *Abdulhaseeb v*. Calbone, 600 F.3d 1301 (10th Cir.2010), a prison policy denied the plaintiff a halal diet, which is necessary to his Muslim religious exercise. In each instance, the law or policy failed to provide an exemption or accommodation to the plaintiff(s).

The Supreme Court's recent ruling in *Holt v. Hobbs*, 135 S.Ct. 853, 2015 WL 232143 (2015), which concerned a prison ban on inmates' growing beards, is another recent example of the more common RFRA claim. The plaintiff in *Holt* sought to grow a beard in accordance with his Muslim faith. In *Holt*, like in *Hobby Lobby*, the government defendants insisted on a complete restriction and did not attempt to accommodate the plaintiff's religious exercise. The plaintiff in *Holt* proposed a compromise—he would be allowed to grow only a half-inch beard—which the prison refused. 135 S.Ct. at 861. The Court ultimately approved this compromise in its ruling. Id. at 867.

Little Sisters of the Poor Home for the Aged, Denver, Colo. v. Burwell, No. 13-1540, 2015 WL 4232096, at *14 (10th Cir. July 14, 2015)

That Court when on to explain in some detail the RFRA application:

RFRA was enacted in 1993 in response to Employment Division, Department of Human Resources of Oregon v. Smith, 494 U.S. 872, 110 S.Ct. 1595, 108 L.Ed.2d 876 (1990), in which the Supreme Court held that burdens on religious exercise are constitutional under the Free Exercise Clause if they result from a neutral law of general application and have a rational basis. *Id.* at 878–80; *United* States v. Hardman, 297 F.3d 1116, 1126 (10th Cir.2002). Congress enacted RFRA to restore the pre-Smith standard, which permitted legal burdens on an individual's religious exercise only if the government could show a compelling need to apply the law to that person and that the law did so in the least restrictive way. Smith, 494 U.S. at 882–84; see also Hobby Lobby, 134 S.Ct. at 2792–93 (Ginsburg, J., dissenting). Congress specified the purpose of RFRA was to restore this compelling interest test as it had been recognized in Sherbert v. Verner, 374 U.S. 398, 83 S.Ct. 1790, 10 L.Ed.2d 965 (1963), and Wisconsin v. Yoder, 406 U.S. 205, 92 S.Ct. 1526, 32 L.Ed.2d 15 (1972). See 42 U.S.C. § 2000bb(b)(1).

By restoring the pre-Smith compelling interest standard, Congress did not express any intent to alter other aspects of Free Exercise jurisprudence. See id.; Hobby Lobby, 723 F.3d at 1133 ("Congress, through RFRA, intended to bring Free Exercise jurisprudence back to the test established before *Smith*. There is no indication Congress meant to alter any other aspect of pre-Smith jurisprudence..."). Notably, pre-Smith jurisprudence allowed the government "wide latitude" to administer large administrative programs, and rejected

the imposition of strict scrutiny in that context. As the Supreme Court indicated in *Bowen v. Roy*,

In the enforcement of a facially neutral and uniformly applicable requirement for the administration of welfare programs reaching many millions of people, the Government is entitled to wide latitude. The Government should not be put to the strict test applied by the District Court; that standard required the Government to justify enforcement of the use of Social Security number requirement as the least restrictive means of accomplishing a compelling state interest.

476 U.S. 693, 707, 106 S.Ct. 2147, 90 L.Ed.2d 735 (1986). As we discuss at greater length below, the pre-*Smith* standards restored by RFRA permitted the Government to impose *de minimis* administrative burdens on religious actors without running afoul of religious liberty guarantees.

3. Elements of RFRA Analysis

RFRA analysis follows a burden-shifting framework. "[A] plaintiff establishes a prima facie claim under RFRA by proving the following three elements: (1) a substantial burden imposed by the federal government on a(2) sincere (3) exercise of religion." *Kikumura v. Hurley*, 242 F.3d 950, 960 (10th Cir.2001); *see* 42 U.S.C. § 2000bb–1(a). The burden then shifts to the government to demonstrate its law or policy advances "a compelling interest implemented through the least restrictive means available." *Hobby Lobby*, 723 F.3d at 1142–43. The government must show that the "compelling interest test is satisfied through application of the challenged law 'to the person'—the particular claimant whose sincere exercise of religion is being substantially burdened." *Id.* at 1126 (quotations and citation omitted). "This burden-shifting approach applies even at the preliminary injunction stage." *Id.*

We have previously stated "a government act imposes a 'substantial burden' on religious exercise if it: (1) requires participation in an activity prohibited by a sincerely held religious belief, (2) prevents participation in conduct motivated by a sincerely held religious belief, or (3) places substantial pressure on an adherent to engage in conduct contrary to a sincerely held religious belief." *Hobby Lobby*, 723 F.3d at 1125–26 (quotations and alterations omitted); *see also Yellowbear*, 741 F.3d at 55 (applying this framework to RLUIPA); *Abdulhaseeb*, 600 F.3d at 1315 (same). As we discuss in the next section, whether a law substantially burdens religious exercise in one or more of these ways is a matter for courts—not plaintiffs—to decide.

4. Courts Determine Substantial Burden

To determine whether plaintiffs have made a prima facie RFRA claim, courts do not question "whether the petitioner ... correctly perceived the commands of [his or her] faith." *Thomas v. Review Bd. of Ind. Emp't Sec. Div.*, 450 U.S. 707, 716, 101 S.Ct. 1425, 67

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Finally the application of the FAA cannot meet the final test; by disallowing all group actions, it does not reflect a "least restrictive" means of accomplishing any compelling governmental interest in preserving and protecting arbitration in general.

The least-restrictive-means standard is exceptionally demanding, see City of Boerne, 521 U.S., at 532, 117 S.Ct. 2157, and it is not satisfied here. HHS has not shown that it lacks other means of achieving its desired goal without imposing a substantial burden on the exercise of religion by the objecting parties in these cases. See §§ 2000bb–1(a), (b) (requiring the Government to "demonstrat[e] that application of [a substantial] burden to the person ... is the least restrictive means of furthering [a] compelling governmental interest" (emphasis added)).

Burwell v. Hobby Lobby Stores, Inc., supra at, 2780,

The FAA could easily be applied to contracts in all its aspects with this one exception of application to concerted claims in arbitration by employees governed by the NLRA. Carving out this exception, which is limited, would be the "least restrictive" means of achieving the goals of the FAA without interfering with the religious rights of employees.⁵⁴ Thus, the FAA would apply in the *AT&T v. Concepcion*, 563 U.S. 321 (2011) context because no employee religious rights were at issue. This would not affect any other policies that animate the FAA doctrines.

Hobby Lobby, in its Handbook, as we pointed out, believes that the workplace is one where employees, including workers, must operate the business and act in the manner consistent with their religion:

In order to effectively serve our owners, employees and customers, the Company is committed to:

- Honoring the Lord and all we do by operating the Company in a manner with biblical principles;
- Serving our employees and their families by establishing a work environment and Company policies which build character, strength in individuals, and nurture families; and
- Providing a return on the owner's investment, sharing the Lord's blessings with employees, and investing in our community.

The FAA already carves out maritime transactions and contracts of employment for employees involved in transportation.

We believe that it is by God's grace and provision that the Company has endured. He has been faithful in the past, and we trust Him for our future.

JX 2I p. 6 and JX 2J p. 6.

The question then is whether, when workers get together to benefit themselves in the workplace, is this a religious exercise? That question is easily answered in the affirmative.

Religions are replete with references to the workplace. The religious exercise to help their fellow worker is a fundamental tenet of every religion. Whether we use the phrase "brotherly love" or otherwise, every religion encourages workers to help each other to make themselves and the workplace better. We have attached summaries from various religions that emphasize the core principle that helping fellow workers is a central religious act. See Attachment A. The central religious act of helping other workers is a core principle of Christianity, which seems to govern the principles by which Hobby Lobby operates.

Hobby Lobby brought its lawsuit to challenge a portion of the Affordable Care Act because it claimed that statute burdened its religious exercise. The Court found, against the government's arguments, that the Affordable Care imposed a substantial burden on religious activity and found that the government could not establish that it imposed the least restrictive means of establishing any governmental interest.

Here, we have three federal laws at issue:

- The National Labor Relations Act, 29 U,S.C. § 151, et seq.;
- The Norris-LaGuardia Act, 29 U.S.C. § 11, et seq.; and
- The Federal Arbitration Act, 9 U.S.C. § 1, et seq.

The RFRA applies to supersede any governmental restriction on the free exercise of such religious activity. To the extent that those laws are interpreted in any way to burden the religious

This is just a religious version of the solidarity principle explained by the Board in *Fresh and Easy, supra*. This is the application of the most fundamental religious principle: the Golden Rule. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Golden_Rule. If some fellow employees ask for help regarding a workplace issue, the other employee should help the first. Hobby Lobby directly contradicts the Golden Rule.

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Alameda, California 94501
(A) 337-1001 exercise of helping fellow workers, the Religious Freedom Restoration Act requires that super strict scrutiny be applied.

Here, the National Labor Relations Act governs the right of employees to engage in concerted activities. It is nothing more than workers getting together to help themselves and their families. Thus, there is nothing inconsistent with the application of Section 7, but any limitation on the application of Section 7 would be contrary to the religious views of those who want to help fellow workers.

The Norris-LaGuardia Act is to the same effect.

Here, Hobby Lobby will argue that the Federal Arbitration Act forecloses the application of the National Labor Relations Act and the Norris-LaGuardia Act. The problem, however, with Hobby Lobby's argument is that the Religious Freedom Restoration Act must be interpreted and applied in a way that protects the religious right of employees to engage in concerted activity. In this case, the concerted activity would be to present group claims in order to benefit workers as a group. This is nothing more than concerted activity. ⁵⁶

Hobby Lobby uses as an alternative arbitration process the Christian Conciliation's' rule of Procedure for Christian Conciliation. Nothing in its rules prohibits group or collective or class resolution of disputes. Hobby Lobby's prohibition in its FUAP is thus contrary to the very religious organizations procedures which it adopts. It is also doubtful that in light of the RFRA, the Board can invalidate the Christian Conciliation's religious form of arbitration. And this is particularly true since there is a deep tradition of religious arbitration. The fact that the very religious based procedure that Hobby Lobby uses, allows group complaints undermines the application of the FAA to prohibit such collective disputes from being resolved.

There is no doubt that the Federal Arbitration Act, if applied to foreclose concerted activity, would substantially burden the exercise of religion by those employees who wanted to

These principles would not apply to most of the situations addressed by *AT&T v. Concepcion*, 563 U.S. 321 (2011), which involved commercial disputes.

⁵⁷ See, Michael A. Helfand, *Arbitration's Counter-Narrative: The Religious Arbitration Paradigm*, 124 Yale L.J. 2994, 3014 (2015)(The paradigmatic example of this counternarrative is religious arbitration).

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(001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
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work together to help their brothers and sisters in the workplace. It would also burden those employees of other employers.

The burden shifts at that point under the RFRA for the government to establish that that substantial burden "is in the furtherance of compelling government interest." Here, there is no governmental interest. The government can simply allow, consistent with the government interest of the National Labor Relations Act and the Norris-LaGuardia Act, employees to present their claims concertedly in some forum. Nothing in this case requires that that forum be arbitration. That forum can be arbitration or in court. This is the central thrust of *Murphy Oil*. What an employer cannot do, consistent with the National Labor Relations Act, the Norris-LaGuardia Act and the Religious Freedom Restoration Act, is entirely foreclose workers working together to make their workplace a better circumstance.

For these reasons, the Religious Freedom Restoration Act applies to this case.⁵⁹ The Federal Arbitration Act cannot be applied to interfere with the religious right of employees to help other employees by prohibiting employees from jointly working together to improve the workplace and to help fellow workers with respect to wages, hours and working conditions.⁶⁰

XXIII. THE REMEDY

The ALJ's recommended remedy is inadequate.

The Administrative Law Judge foreclosed such an inquiry. Second, it is clear that this is not "the least restrictive means of further compelling the governmental interest."

The religious exemption principles which we derive from the RFRA are already in place and have been long recognized for those who have some religious objection to joining a supporting union. See 29 U.S.C. § 159. There are some religions which have the basic tenet that adherents should not join or support unions. Title 7 also recognizes that an accommodation is sometimes necessary. See *EEOC v. Univ. of Detroit*, 904 F.2d 331 (6th Cir. 1990) (because employee's religious objection was to union itself, reasonable accommodation was required allowing him to make charitable donation equivalent to amount of union dues, instead of paying dues). Religious principles often govern and require an accommodation. *EEOC v. Abercrombie & Fitch Stores Inc.*, 135 S.Ct. 2028, 2015 WL 2464053 (2015). This case represents this principle: there are those who believe that it is a basic religious tenet to help fellow workers. Title VII thus requires an accommodation, workers who believe it is a religious exercise to help their fellow workers must be accommodated.

⁶⁰ The Board must address the application of the RFRA because it contains a statutory fee requirement. Charging Party is entitled to its fees if it prevails on this ground.

The employer should be required to post permanently the Board's ill-fated employee rights notice. The Courts that invalidated the rule noted that such a notice could be part of a remedy. It is time for the Board to impose the requirement for a lengthy posting of that notice as a remedy for unfair labor practices.

Additionally, any notice that is posted should be posted for the period of time from when the violation began until the notice is posted. The short period of 60 days only encourages employers to delay proceedings, because the notice posting will be so short and so far in the future.

The Board's notice and the Decision of the Board should be mailed to all employees. Simply posting the notice without further explanation of what occurred in the proceedings is not adequate notice for employees. The Board Decision should be mailed to former employees and provided to current employees.

An appropriate explanation by way of notice reading should be required. That notice reading should require that a Board agent read the notice and allow employees to inquire as to the scope of the remedy and the effect of the remedy. Simply reading a notice without explanation is inadequate. The employer should not be present.

The employer should not be allowed to implement a new FUAP. The Board does not possess that power. A new FUAP can only occur after there has been a complete remedy of the violations found in this case. In other words, the Employer may not implement any new policy until after it has completely remedied this case by rescinding all the unlawful policies, posting an appropriate notice allowing employees to take appropriate legal action without the implementation of any purported forced arbitration wavier.

The traditional notice is also inadequate. The standard Board notice should contain an affirmative statement of the unlawful conduct. We suggest the following:

We have been found to have violated the National Labor Relations Act. We illegally maintained a Mutual Arbitration Procedure. We have rescinded that unlawful policy. Additionally, we have been found to have implemented a policy that violated federal law. We have agreed to rescind that policy.

Absent some affirmative statement of the unlawful conduct, the employees will not understand the arcane language of the notice. Nor is the notice sufficient without such an admission. In effect, the way the notice is framed is the equivalent of a statement that Hobby Lobby will not do specified conduct, not an admission or recognition that it did anything wrong to begin with.

The notice should be mailed to employees. The Board's decision should also be mailed at the same time. The notice does not explain what occurred, and only through a receipt of the Board's decision can the employees know what occurred.

The Notice should require that the person signing the notice have his or her name on the notice. This avoids the common practice where someone scrawls a name to avoid being identified with the notice, and the employees have no idea who signed it.

The employees should be allowed work time to read the Board's Decision and Notice.

Hobby Lobby should be required to toll the statute of limitations for any claims for the period during which the FUAP has been in place until a reasonable time after employees received the notice so that they may assert any collective or group claims that they have. Otherwise, the Employer would have had the advantage of forestalling and foreclosing group claims. This would give employees an opportunity to learn that the FUAP has been rescinded and that they may bring group or collective claims.

The Notice should be read to employees by a Board agent outside the presence of management. Representatives of the Charging Party should be present. Employees should be allowed to ask questions.

XXIV. CONCLUSION

Hobby Lobby preaches concerted activity in the workplace. This is the central right protected by the NLRA, the Norris-LaGuardia Act and the RFRA. The FUAP is unlawful under the Act. The FAA cannot constitutionally be applied to the activity involved in this case. The FUAP is unlawful.

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Professional Corporation Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200 Alameda, California 94501

WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD A Professional Corporation Dated: December 4, 2015 /S/ DAVID A. ROSENFELD DAVID A. ROSENFELD By: Attorneys for Charging Party
THE COMMITTEE TO PRESERVE THE
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WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD
A Professional Corporation
1001 Marina Village Parkway, Suite 200
Alameda, California 94501
(510) 337-1001

WEINBERG, ROGER & ROSENFELD A Professional Corporation 1001 Marina Village Patkway, Suite 200 Alameda, California 94501 (510) 337-1001